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F. L. WORMALD
Editor

BERTHA TUMA
Associate Editor

HELEN M. KOLODZIEY
Assistant Editor

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EDITORIAL NOTES

HUMAN TALENT IS OUR GREATEST NATURAL RESOURCE, says the President of the American Council on Education in his foreword to "Background for a National Scholarship Policy." He adds that "American democracy is firmly established on the bedrock proposition that the fortunes of the individual and society rise and fall together." This proposition—valid for any healthy society—demands greater practical recognition even on this side of the Iron Curtain. It provides the basic reason why educational opportunity is a matter of the highest public concern—and would still be so if there were no problem of "competitive coexistence." This study, conducted by Elmer D. West for a subcommittee of the American Council's Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, brings together for the first time all the available data on the question of a national scholarship policy. The report is cautious and limited in its conclusions. It recommends further studies, relating mainly to the influences other than money that affect the desire to go to college. Those influences certainly call for investigation, but they can hardly be a decisive factor in determining the need for scholarships. Even though many suitable students are deterred from college by other causes when money is no bar, it is surely indefensible for a democratic society to take the risk of *anybody's* being kept out by money alone. The data presented seem to show that far more scholarships are needed. The question remains of how they are to be provided. Apart from a thorough analysis of the present sources, the report merely notes that opinion is divided between those who believe that the need can be met only by the Federal Government and those who think it should be left to the care of the states, the local communities and private philanthropy. Either view may be held on purely *a priori* grounds, but this careful and unbiased report leaves nobody any excuse for failing to examine the relevant facts. American Council on Education, Washington 6, D. C., \$1.50.

PROBLEMS IN COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION contains the substance of three lectures given by A. J. Brumbaugh before the 11th Annual Institute on Higher Education at Nashville, Tennessee in July 1955. To an experienced professional administrator the book may seem rather elementary, but actual cases cited by the author exemplify the abundant evidence that even the elements of sound administration are lacking on many a campus. Dr. Brumbaugh sets out to analyze the problems rather than to propound solutions, but when he allows himself to put forward suggestions for improvement—particularly in relation to faculty morale and student self-government—they are, as one would expect, sensible and imaginative. In a more extensive treatment of his subject he would probably have given greater prominence to a twofold paradox which he merely mentions in passing: that as a general rule neither the college administrator nor the college teacher comes to his task with any *professional* preparation. These weaknesses are at last receiving serious attention, but for presidents and professors who got into the game too soon to have the benefit of current efforts to find remedies such books as this are a valuable help. Board of Education of the Methodist Church, Nashville 2, Tennessee, \$1.00.

JOHAN HAY WHITNEY FOUNDATION has announced that it is accepting applications for the John Hay Fellowship Program for 1957-58 from qualified public high school teachers in Georgia, Kentucky, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Washington and West Virginia for study in the area of the humanities at either Yale or Columbia University. Inquiries may be directed to the Division of the Humanities, John Hay Whitney Foundation, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20. The deadline for receipt of completed nominations is 31 May 1956.

CHURCH AND CAMPUS is a volume containing contributions of Presbyterians who have labored in the field of Christian service to youth through education. Among the contributors are John R. Cunningham, Hunter B. Blakely, R. T. L. Liston and René de Visme Williamson. John Knox Press, Richmond, Virginia, \$2.00.

ST. JOSEPH'S COLLEGE (Indiana) has become the 23rd liberal arts college to join with Illinois Institute of Technology in a five-year plan to provide students with a liberal arts and engineering education. Under the program students follow a liberal arts course at one of the cooperating colleges for three years and thereafter study for two years at Illinois Institute of Technology in one of the eight engineering fields. At the end of the fifth year students receive a bachelor of arts or science degree from the liberal arts college and an engineering degree from Illinois Institute of Technology.

THE INTERPRETER'S BIBLE, Volume 5, contains the complete texts and commentary on four important books in the Old Testament—Ecclesiastes, Song of Songs, Isaiah and Jeremiah. Results of study of the Dead Sea Scrolls discovered in 1947 have been incorporated in the commentaries in Volume 5. A commentary in 12 volumes, **THE INTERPRETER'S BIBLE** satisfies one of the greatest needs of the Christian ministry for a comprehensive Bible commentary that would focus the vast findings of modern scholarship on the meaning of every passage in order to bring out the preaching and teaching values for Christian living today. Abingdon Press, New York and Nashville, Tennessee, \$8.75.

THE 1955 YEARBOOK OF THE AMERICAN ALUMNI COUNCIL—subtitled "The 'How To' of Educational Fund Raising," is a veritable encyclopedia of that subject as well as every branch of alumni activity. The report of the 40th General Conference bears out the impression carried away by those who were present at Bretton Woods that the Council is guided by a vision of service to higher education going far beyond the care and feeding of alumni associations. American Alumni Council, Washington 6, D. C., \$5.00 (for non-members).

AN INSTITUTE FOR TEACHERS OF COLLEGIATE MATHEMATICS, sponsored by the National Science Foundation, will be held at the University of Michigan from 25 June through 15 August 1956, with the aim of strengthening and enriching undergraduate instruction in mathematics. The Founda-

tion will provide a number of stipends for persons taking part in the institute. Requests for information about the institute and applications for admission and for stipends should be addressed to Professor T. H. Hildebrandt, Director, 3012 Angell Hall, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

"A REDHEADED GENTLEMAN who said his name was McLennan tapped me on the shoulder and said that his forebears came to America about 1600 and had never spoken to an Englishman since. I said it was wonderful we could still understand each other after three hundred and fifty years." This item from "Cousins and Strangers," an anthology of comments on America by Commonwealth Fund Fellows from Britain, occurs in a linguistic context but has wider applicability. Yet these observations, recorded by an exceptionally intelligent group of visitors and skilfully selected by S. Gorley Putt, show that understanding is not impossible. In the Section on "Academic Fields and Universities," another writer remarks: "The educational systems of all countries develop gradually in response to characteristics peculiar to the local environment. Whether the results achieved under the system within the particular environment are satisfactory or not becomes an argument of quite different character from that which springs from international comparisons." A third observer—a theological student—after noting the symptoms of "insecurity" in American life, goes on: "But I would not want to over-stress it; the immensely exhilarating enthusiasm of the American people for their own land and way of life is still, I am sure, the dominant impression received by the visitor from abroad." The book should raise some laughs and lay some ghosts on both sides of the Atlantic. It is also a tonic for one's faith in the value of educational exchange. Published for the Commonwealth Fund by the Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, \$3.50.

THE TEACHER AND HIMSELF

RICHARD D. WEIGLE

PRESIDENT, ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE (MARYLAND)

AT the Annual Meeting of the Association held in St. Louis in January, the Commission on Liberal Education was responsible for the organization of a sectional meeting on the general subject of "The Teacher and Himself." It was the thought of the Commission that college teachers were better fitted to address themselves to this subject than were college presidents. Hence speakers and panel members were drawn from faculty rather than administrative ranks. There seemed indeed to be some poetic justice in requiring presidents to sit in audience on a faculty discussion of the subject.

The speakers were Dean Thomas S. Hall of the College of Liberal Arts, Washington University, who spoke on "What Makes a Good Teacher?" and Sister Mary Emil of the Committee on Sister Formation, who spoke on "What Keeps a Good Teacher Alive?"

Faculty members of the discussion panel were Professor Theodore Ashford of Saint Louis University, Dean Robert R. Brooks of Williams College, Professor Barry Commoner of Washington University and Professor Hiram L. Jome of DePauw University. Exceptions to the faculty rule were President Frederick Hard of Scripps College and President Richard D. Weigle of St. John's College, who moderated as Chairman of the Commission on Liberal Education.

The papers given by the two speakers are printed immediately after this report.

Professor Ashford opened the discussion by taking vigorous exception to the rise of what he termed "gadgets" in the effort to meet the mounting classroom population. Teaching, he said, involves direct interaction of the mind of the teacher with the mind of the student. Books, charts, motion pictures and television broadcasts are all inadequate replacements for a living teacher. Such "gadgets" assume a "standard" prepared mind to receive them, but the very preparation of the mind—whether

informational, mental or emotional—is the task of the teacher. Among the qualities necessary in the good college teacher are training in scholarship, enthusiasm and respect for his subject matter, a capacity to grow intellectually, humility, imagination and the sympathetic qualities of a full human being. Professor Ashford urged that the teacher embody the dynamic elements of our society so that there be not conflict but coordination between the world of study and the world of practical affairs.

Professor Commoner suggested that a good college teacher is characterized by a whole-hearted devotion to and competence in his subject. Such teaching must be based on the teacher's direct participation in the given area, not only as a teacher but as a creative scholar. This requirement is not one which is easily met under the present conditions of our colleges and universities. Too often teachers, especially in the lower ranks, are given neither encouragement nor opportunity to do creative work. There appears to be a considerable tendency to reduce college teaching to a bystander's summary of what creative scholars are doing. The time is now at hand for a return to the traditional idea that college teaching should be based on creative scholarship.

After some questions from the audience, Professor Jome took up the discussion and emphasized particularly the fact that the teacher in the classroom faces very little direct and immediate competition. The teacher is not like the lawyer, whose every point is fiercely contested by his opponent. Instead students and teachers are not on an equal basis. Students probably do not "dare" to press their arguments too far since they have their eyes on the grade in the course. It is doubtful if many teachers would dock the grade of a student who stands up vigorously and successfully for his ideas, but the student cannot be sure. The effect of all this is to force the teacher to look for special forms or sources of competition and self-improvement, for lack of competition may destroy his initiative and keep him from growing. One is of course publication, and even the rejection slip is not altogether bad. Mainly, however, the teacher must build up a competition within himself, with his subject, almost like a golfer. But when a person studies himself too much he may exhaust the subject. This makes it difficult for a teacher to know

where he stands, especially since there is no adequate way of measuring the success of his teaching.

Professor Jome said that he was disturbed because "very few of our students want to follow out our line of work." Perhaps students believe they cannot attain to a teacher's intellectual level; perhaps on the other hand they have some contempt for teachers. Perhaps the profession seems monotonous and underpaid. But students should seriously consider college teaching if they want a constructive and satisfying line of work, always dynamic and always refreshing.

Commenting further on the need for additional college teachers over the next decade, Dean Brooks noted that the college world has available an immense recruiting service in the 1800 institutions of higher education in the country. In his opinion a very large fraction of the young people in these institutions are seeking a career in which they can be of service to others. To direct members of this group toward the teaching profession two things must be done. First, colleges must organize themselves to recruit teachers at least as effectively as they now recruit for other vocations and professions. All members of the faculty should be made aware of the impending shortage in the profession and should be encouraged to talk with students who show signs of intellectual curiosity. Students who are approached as individuals by teachers whom they respect and who themselves enjoy their work can be directed toward teaching in far greater numbers than at present. Secondly, "we must be able to offer prospective teachers something more than sweat, tears, poverty and public scorn." The burden of minor clerical and administrative details can be lightened and more effective use made of teachers as teachers. Salaries must be raised spectacularly, not only at the competitive level of the beginning instructor, but by establishing greater differentials at the top. Fringe benefits must be more fully exploited. And prospective young teachers ought to be helped to learn that although Americans may display a defensive reflex of tolerant scorn toward those who know more than they, Americans place a higher value upon mass education than any previous civilization.

WHAT MAKES A GOOD TEACHER?

THOMAS S. HALL

DEAN, COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS, WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

OUR assignment is a formidable one: to define good teaching and to draw practical deductions from our definition—all within ten minutes. Nor is our problem made easier by the fact that good teaching, as everyone will agree, is of many different kinds. But in this paper I should like to suggest that good teachers, whatever their individual differences, have certain qualities in common and that one way to discover these qualities is to regard teaching as an art and the teacher as an artist.

Plato had some observations to make about art, specifically the art of the theater, which may help us with our problem. Socrates is heard arguing with a rhapsode named Ion about success in the art of acting. Socrates paints the picture of a lodestone or magnet, and three iron rings. The rings hang down from the magnet in a chain, receiving and transmitting its magnetic power. The magnet, representing the muse of poetry, transfers its power to one of the rings—a poet, who is thus inspired to write a poem. The writing of the poem transfers the power to a second ring—an actor or rhapsode who impulsively seizes his lyre and, mounting the stage, begins to recite. By this act of recitation the power is transferred to a third and final ring—the audience.

The applicability of Plato's figure to the classroom is suggested as Socrates goes on to describe the nature of the power that is transmitted and its effect upon the recipient. For Socrates makes it clear that poet, rhapsode and listener are seized in turn by transcendent and imperative feelings, not entirely rational in character. Each is inspired to some appropriate action even as the Corybantian revellers are inspired to dance when they hear the music associated with the god by whom they are possessed. So too, if we recall the teachers who have most inspired us, we will agree that they have done so by contriving to transfer to us some of their almost magical feelings toward a subject of special affection or concern. We achieve a beginning in our effort to define good teaching when we assert that it involves a re-creation

in the student of the teacher's esthetic response to a subject in which he is passionately interested. This brings us to a more subtle but more important analogy between teaching and the other arts.

Essential to greatness in any art is a certain element of tentativeness or incompleteness in the presentation. An excellent artist—whether painter, poet or teacher—will begin by posing a problem, preferably a problem of primary significance. Each will suggest a solution to the problem he has posed but—this is the important point—never a complete solution. In teaching, as in painting or poetry, an element of mystery must remain. The feeling which the great teacher intuitively communicates is one of intense absorption in a subject which he does not fully understand but which he is unreasoningly committed to understand further. Only thus can he achieve the high goal of creating in the student an independent impulse to seek knowledge for himself.

The ultimate infertility of much teaching arises from a serious misunderstanding of what transpires or ought to transpire in the classroom. Too readily we assume that two different activities are supposed to occur there—teaching on the podium and learning on the bench. Actually, where teaching is at its best the activities of teacher and student turn out to be two closely related aspects of a single, fundamental process—namely learning or inquiry. The highest form of teaching is that which reveals the teacher as a learner. Mastery of the material and the ability to expound it eloquently are important, in the sense that the ability to draw is important to the graphic arts, but they are not enough. Rather teaching reaches its highest expression where teacher and student move together toward greater understanding of a subject in which both are intensely absorbed—with the teacher only a little ahead of the student.

Malraux has seized this concept of teacher as learner and applied it on a much broader scale to civilization itself. He portrays the civilized man, not as one who like Plato's philosopher returns to the cave to tell what he has seen in the brilliant sunlight of his clear understanding, but as one who, holding a torch above his head, peers upward and outward into the black night of the unknown.

This concept of excellence in teaching has practical implica-

tions for the college administrator, since it commits him to create a climate in which learning can flourish. Provided he has created this climate, the administrator has the right to expect the individual professor to keep the spark of learning alive within himself. But the administrator must never be narrow or despotic in his definition of learning. Legitimate inquiry may concern itself with subjects as specific as the chemistry of vitamins and enzymes or as general as the common effort of a whole faculty, which I observed during a recent visit to St. John's College, to reach some agreement concerning fundamental interrelationships of the various learned disciplines.

There is a way, I believe, in which teaching differs significantly from other arts, and that is in the more immediate impact of the audience upon the creative act of the artist. Good teaching will reflect, step by step, the reaction of the student to everything the teacher says. The teacher's sensitivity will be especially pronounced in small group techniques which involve cross-examination and are essentially dialectical in nature. Even the lecturer, however, must continually adjust to the pattern of student response.

The creative participation of the student in the actual process of teaching brings to mind an issue which is frequently aired, namely whether the primary orientation of the teacher should be toward the subject or the pupil. Where there is true excellence this question need not arise. The good teacher will have an interest in and understanding of both his subject and his pupil. He will have a love of learning and a love of man.

In these brief remarks I have ventured to suggest certain characteristics which various sorts of good teaching have in common: a selection of significant materials, the mastery of these, eloquence in their exposition, an understanding of and concern for the student. All these are fundamental. But what is it that lifts certain moments of teaching high above others?

Artistic excellence is ultimately indefinable, perhaps even derives its effectiveness partly from its intrinsic elusiveness and indefinability. We can at least say, however, that in teaching as in every art esthetic feelings must be communicated and that there must be a residual element of mystery which causes the student to go on by himself.

Recently in the home of one of my professorial friends I found a book which had been presented to him by a grateful class, and on the flyleaf was the following inscription written by one of the students:

To Professor X:

He grasped morality and practiced it, but it was not for this that we loved him. Rather it was that he too was striving for something which he could not obtain. Though he lit the path for us who are blind, the darkness was always before him.

WHAT KEEPS A GOOD TEACHER ALIVE?

SISTER MARY EMIL

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF PHILOSOPHY, MARYGROVE COLLEGE

BY keeping a good teacher alive I trust that we mean to keep him alive as a teacher. But this initial specification of the life which is to be maintained should not blind us to the truth that the teacher, like the truck driver or even the tomato plant, is kept alive on a material level by being fed. Our efforts to upgrade salary schedules remain basic to a sincere discussion of how to keep good college teachers good and how to keep them in the profession. In a society such as ours, where a college teacher's peace of mind, his status in the community, his ability to convince his wife that he should stay in the university, his power to send his own children to college, his freedom to buy books and to subscribe to learned journals—where all these things are frequently jeopardized by gross insufficiency of income, it would seem unrealistic to proceed as though the live teacher had nothing to do with the teacher's living.

I have nothing to propose to this audience in the line of ways and means. If there is anything that someone dressed as I am can contribute at this point it is encouragement. In attending educational meetings one notes a tendency on the part of teachers at once to be fascinated by the problem of teachers' salaries and to veer away from the question as somehow a trifle mercenary and not sufficiently idealistic for an educator of youth. In this connection then it may interest you to have an appraisal, as it were from the sidelines, from a kind of teacher who is not personally interested in salary and who is nevertheless convinced that any move to enhance the professional status of teachers on any level, from the first grade through the graduate school, is a good one. We are all in this together. Anything that can be done to increase the prestige or influence or attractiveness of any segment of the profession is good for all of us and is good for the cause of learning in general. The college teacher heads the profession academically. In a culture such as ours it is normal that his compensation should reflect that status.

In this matter, as in many others, it is foolish to be pushed into an "either—or" position. It is not a matter of *either* being idealistic *or* being concerned with the salaries of teachers on all levels. One can be both. Better still, we may say that we can begin to express an idealistic appreciation of the place of the intellectual in our society by remunerating him on a scale that enables him to become trained and to live as a scholar.

To go on with the merely material things that can keep a good teacher alive, anything that saves the teacher's time and energy for thinking, studying, discussing, teaching, is a valuable investment for our institutions. Because the Greek sages drew figures in the sand with a bare toe, it does not mean that we shall grow in wisdom by substituting sand boxes for electronic computers. Too sublime a scorn for mechanical gadgets can be a costly thing today. Electric typewriters, dictaphones, photocopiers *extend* a teacher or a researcher, and if we are interested in conserving and developing to the full what promises to be the scarcest of all scarce resources of the college in the years ahead—the teacher—then these contrivances should have high priority on the requisition list. Sometimes I think that we would do well to make a few time studies on how we use our Ph.D.'s. If we think for instance of how a hospital uses the time and energy of its M.D.'s, and of the array of services that are provided to relieve doctors or even R.N.'s of all duties that do not demand their specialized skills, if we think of the helps that business provides for its executives or a hotel for its chefs, it seems that we might look into what our professors do all day and what operations could be taken over by secretarial assistance of one kind or other.

We have been talking so far of the conditions, not the causes, of keeping the good teacher alive. They are not indispensable conditions. Genius and devotion can dispense with any or all, but in general they are necessary, and a sincere discussion of our question cannot dispense with them. Nevertheless these things, important as they are, are only conditions. On the material level, good teaching and the production and inspiration of good teaching can have no efficient causes, because they are things of the spirit. Let us go a step higher, then, and ask what is it on the purely psychological level which keeps the teacher *qua* teacher alive?

Obviously if the teacher is one who induces learning in another, any increase in his own learning, and any increment in the proficiency with which he can induce the acquisition of knowledge by another, keeps him alive and growing. Any opportunity then which an administrator can provide for a teacher along these lines is all to the good. The precise manner in which teachers can be given on-the-job training in the know-how of college instruction will vary from place to place and with individual faculty members and administrators. It would be a dangerous simplism to fasten on any one expedient to the exclusion of others. It seems more important to emphasize that the continuous development of the teachers in a given college or university is a most important function of a dean or a department head.

Teachers can be strip-mined. Conservation policies always require present sacrifices. Sometimes the outcomes by which administrators are judged involve *using* teachers here and now in a way which militates against their development as teachers and therefore against the long-term good of the students and of the school. The administrator of any kind who looks upon his teachers as so many instruments to be used in the advancement of his own policies will in the end work havoc with his school. It is always wrong to use human beings as pure means, but to turn a teacher into a pure means is a peculiarly wrong and self-defeating policy. To make maximum present use of a college teacher inevitably means depriving him of the absolutely necessary time for intellectual growth, and a teacher who is not growing intellectually soon ceases to be able to convey to students enthusiasm for the intellectual life. Almost anything an administrator might do, however, from the putting up and remodelling of buildings to the sponsoring of a football team, *shows* in a way that the patient developing of the faculty does not. I am continuously tempted to reply to the question "How shall we keep the good teacher alive?" in the same way that a wise man in our tradition replied to the query "How can I become a saint?" He answered, "Will it." So here it is not so much ingenuity on the part of administrators which is called for as abnegation—the self-sacrifice which will impel them to think in terms of the long-range growth and development of teachers rather than the immediate and ostensible success of administration policies.

There is a vast range of intellectual and professional helps and opportunities which can be given college teachers. Most of them are obvious and well known. All of them are important. Without underestimating any of them, from the provision of library and research facilities to the scheduling of classes with a view to teacher growth, I should like to stress for a moment what seems to be a need in the small colleges in particular—namely increased opportunity for meeting, discussion and genuine intellectual work and challenge among teachers in a given institution. The learned societies do not meet often enough to provide this, and their meetings can often not be attended by the teachers who need them most. Faculty and committee meetings tend to be concerned with administrative and procedural problems. The departmental seminar on a systematic basis is difficult or impossible with a small faculty. We do not yet seem to have arrived at a modern equivalent of the medieval *disputatio*, which resulted in a real widening of the frontiers of knowledge. As a Thomist I like to recall that some of St. Thomas Aquinas' finest points have been preserved to us in the *Quaestiones Disputatae* and the *Quaestiones Quodlibetales*—accounts of a kind of joint forging ahead into new intellectual areas which we hardly equal today.

It seems a pity that when a group of college and university professors is brought together for a discussion—it always seems to be part of some kind of entertainment or similar program under other than direct college auspices. Perhaps we should value systematic discussion enough to institutionalize it into something planned and serious, which is a part of our whole program and which attempts to get something done. What many college teachers seem to need is continuous and purposeful contact with other minds on a footing of equality. The sharpening, the stimulation, the impetus to think and to study, which would come from such a project, to say nothing of the intellectual progress which might come of the joint endeavor, may be a part of what would keep the good teacher alive on the psychological plane on which the teacher's *ideas* account for the value and vitality of his instruction.

But there is another and still higher level on which we may discuss what keeps the good teacher alive and likewise what causes him to be alive in the first place. This is the ethical sphere of

the teacher's own values and ideals. No matter what a teacher is paid, no matter how attractive the fringe benefits and the conditions of his teaching, no matter how assiduously and devotedly the administration waters the choice garden of its faculty, the teacher will not remain good and remain alive—perhaps he will never even become good or come alive—unless he has a personal dedication to his work. However he sees his task, whether in terms of helping students or of pushing back the limits of knowledge, or preferably and quite conceivably in terms of both, he must see it as a mission. The life of scholarship entered upon merely for the sake of money or personal advancement is prostituted, and the results of such a betrayal will inevitably show up in a failure to realize the potentialities of the teacher's position. We might know this *a priori* since, as St. Thomas says, the final cause is the cause of causes because it is the cause of the causality of all causes, and it is to be expected that nothing short of an altruistic ideal of some kind can carry a teacher through the years of patient and unremitting labor which are involved in the mastering and advancing of a field of knowledge and of consistently communicating to the young some part of this same mastery and desire to advance. We can come to the same conclusion empirically, as preliminary studies, one after the other, are beginning to emphasize the teacher's values as determinants of his success in the classroom and to urge that character-training be made some part of teacher-education.

How then shall we keep the good teacher alive on this level? If the general sense of this verb "keep" is transitive—a matter of what could be done to or for a teacher to maintain him in the enviable state of continued vitality—then it is difficult to see what an individual administrator could do for an individual teacher to provide him with the value system that will issue in dedication to the intellectual life and to the communication of knowledge. Implicitly or explicitly behind such a dedication there must be two things. First there must be an intellectual and affective adherence to some ultimate which can provide a last "why" when the college teacher asks himself what is the reason for which he must never be satisfied with his present stock of learning, the reason for which he must be constantly working at something more and something new, the reason for which he must give

himself, his time, his ideas, his patience, his enthusiasm, his friendship, to an endless stream of more or less receptive youths. Secondly there must be a well-thought-through connection between that ultimate and the particular contribution that can be made by the individual teacher's own field of interest and by his teaching in that field. To illustrate, taking these requirements in reverse order, let us say that my field is geography. I must understand precisely what contribution can be made by geographical knowledge to international understanding and to the peace and well-being of peoples today. I must likewise know and want some ultimate whose pursuit makes it sensible for me to want to bother to promote international understanding or anybody else's peace and well-being besides my own.

Those of us who are in church-related colleges or who are church-related persons in any college, should have no trouble in finding the Ultimate whose pursuit can give meaning to all lesser goals. If we are often wanting in dedication to the intellectual apostolate it is perhaps because we have not thought through an educational philosophy and sociology in which the particular branch we are teaching, and the particular institutional context in which we are teaching it, are seen fully as a means to the life-aim which we have set for ourselves. But the reverse situation is also to be found. There are those who may see clearly enough the contribution which could be made by their own branch of learning but who have no devotion to any value whose pursuit may incline them to make any contribution. Surely it is beyond doubt that the good teacher on any level, and above all on the college level, *serves* something and someone beyond himself. And altruism demands some kind of rational foundation.

Clearly the dean or the department head cannot do much to impart or to change the theological or philosophical basis for altruism in his serving teachers. He may perhaps be able to do something to bridge the gap between a teacher's theological and philosophical principles and his grasp of what social justice and social charity require from him in his immediate educational situation. But more important than such necessarily difficult attempts by administrators to impart a set of values to an already formed teacher is a conviction on the part of all policy-makers in

teacher-education, on whatever level, that *why* a teacher teaches is as important as and more important than the what and how of the instruction he gives.

In the difficult years ahead, mounting shortages of college teachers will inevitably tempt us to rationalize all kinds of things, from bargain-counter Ph.D.'s to doubled, tripled and quadrupled teacher loads. The greatest danger in all of this is neither the inferior Ph.D.'s nor the overworked teachers. It is the rationalization. For once we stop being honest with ourselves as to the undesirable nature of what we are doing we have closed the door to repentance. That is why I make this a plea for sincerity in evaluating and raising the status and the performance of our college teachers. What is worth doing is worth paying for. And on the other hand, being human, we are disposed to reason that what we do not wish to pay for is not worth doing or is impossible of accomplishment. Let us not begin with the cost or the difficulties in the way of making good teachers and of helping them to become better in every year of their active service. Let us rather ask what it will mean to our country to have good teachers in our colleges. Let us ask if we can afford not to keep our teachers alive. Let us ask, sincerely, if we *want* the end. Then, though the price of the means be high, we will find a way to pay it.

WOMEN'S COLLEGES AND SCHOLARSHIPS

MERIBETH E. CAMERON

ACADEMIC DEAN AND PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE

NOT long ago I received a clipping from a newspaper in a town which I shall call North Junction. The headline read "North Junction Seniors Get \$25,000 in Scholarship Offers." The story, which was a news release from the high school guidance officer, listed the offers which each senior had received: Susan Jones—from Timkens University, \$500; from Damson College, \$650; from Hayes University, \$800. The point seemed to be that North Junction High School was doing a better and better job; last year its seniors received only \$18,500 in bids, but this year's auction had been more successful. Anyone who has had anything to do with the awarding of college scholarships has met this sort of thing, but this instance was a bit worse than any of the other examples of the "slave market approach" that I had come on before, and the accompanying letter from a distressed father of a prospective freshman involved me in a lively correspondence with prospective students, their parents, high school officials, alumnae and college scholarship officers. From this experience I could draw several morals, but the chief one is that today the relations of various groups concerned with college scholarship awards are characterized by what is called in the modern jargon "a failure of communication." College thinking about scholarships is changing: the thinking of students and their families, of schools and of alumnae has not kept pace with it.

For some years, one of the important themes at educational conferences such as this has been the problem of the many able young people—perhaps one half of the top quarter of the high school graduating classes—who do not go on to college—and with this, the increasing feeling that more scholarship money and more responsible use of it might make it possible for a larger portion of our ablest young people to develop their abilities. In the bad old days (which have not altogether gone) field repre-

NOTE: Address given at the Association's Annual Meeting at Jefferson Hotel in St. Louis, 11 January 1956.

sentatives roamed the land with scholarship money in pocket, bidding unblushingly for students. But today many college officials have developed a changed philosophy of scholarship awards: fewer and fewer regard scholarships as a recruiting device: more and more look on scholarship awards as a social responsibility, a means by which to remove the financial deterrent which blocks college attendance for many promising young people. The new climate of opinion favors scholarship awards on the basis of careful comparison of ability and need if we are really to put our scholarship funds to work in the public interest, which is also our own best interest. What then are some of the basic questions about scholarships under present, and, so far as we can judge them, future conditions in American education?

What role do scholarships play in the economy and make-up of privately endowed colleges in general and women's colleges in particular? The importance of scholarships for privately endowed institutions is obvious. Such institutions must charge tuition and thus put a financial obstacle between them and many able students. Women's colleges are characteristically less well endowed than men's colleges and coeducational colleges. They are expected to give a different and more expensive type of service, in housing for example, and are in the melancholy process of increasing their charges year by year. For such institutions scholarships restore greater selectivity in forming a student body. Some of the women's colleges have suffered under the label of "exclusive girls' schools." I hardly need to assure the audience that there is only one sense in which we wish to be exclusive: we wish to exclude from our student bodies those who are academically and personally unfitted to carry our educational program: we do *not* wish to exclude all those whose families cannot put up say \$1800 a year. Also, we all wish to have a diversified student body. We are interested in horizontal, physical geography—in having students from many countries and many states in this country—but we are also interested in vertical, social geography—in having students who represent many social, economic and religious backgrounds. Here again scholarships provide the way to this diversity which is so important to the composition of our student groups. Scholarship awards are, for colleges of our species, a prime means of restoring equality in this

particular of educational opportunity, and of making it possible for college and student to choose each other without counting the cost.

Who should receive scholarships and in what amount? Perhaps the time has come or will soon come at which most colleges can agree on a formula including these points: (1) that scholarships should be awarded competitively, to able students who need money and (2) that the size of the award should be proportioned to need, with the maximum award set at the difference between what the student and his family can provide and what the college in question costs. There are of course other possibilities—the title of scholarship holder without stipend, the award of sheer prizes for merit regardless of need and financial grants to satisfactory though not outstanding students where need is the major criterion. These other sorts of awards can and do play a role in the program of most colleges, but the combination of ability and need provides the basis on which the great bulk of scholarship money should be awarded. In assessing comparative academic merit, the colleges are old hands: they use various devices, from administrative and faculty instinct to elaborate and perhaps speciously “objective” statistical measures; but on the whole they do a good job of judging which students deserve financial aid because of their intellectual capacity and their promise of individual distinction and social usefulness. Estimate of financial need is another matter, but here the age of innocence has ended with the coming of the College Scholarship Service forms. College scholarship officers now have the data on which they can make a much more sophisticated judgment of a family’s ability to contribute to college education. This information combined with information about the applicant’s personal and academic record provides the raw material for working out a sound, justifiable scholarship award. Indeed today we have almost too much information, if such a thing can be, and this piling up of data plus the greatly increased number of scholarship applications means that these decisions have become harder rather than easier, and that a mounting and almost disconcerting amount of administrative and faculty time must go into work on scholarships if it is to be properly done.

At this point the “failure of communication” which I referred

to earlier deserves further comment. The college may now be proceeding on the assumption that scholarship money should go to scholarship applicants who are both needy and able, and may be employing the soundest processes it can discover to determine merit and need. But many high schools still regard scholarships as prizes for the top-ranking high school graduates without regard to need, and count it greatly for kudos if they can list a long string of scholarships on the commencement program. Many parents think likewise—that if Jenny got good grades in high school she should get a scholarship for them even if she can afford to go to college anyway—though any parent who copes with the College Scholarship form will get a quick and liberal education in the nature and extent of the college's concern with financial need. And local alumnae, eager to interest influential local families in their alma mater, are still on occasion indignant when the college scholarship committee passes over their favorite candidate because her father has an income in five figures and only two dependents. We at Mount Holyoke have been asking high schools and alumnae clubs in publicizing our awards not to mention the amounts of the awards, since the size of our grants involves calculation of need and therefore would constitute a revelation of confidential information about the families' financial position, but we have had to do a great deal of explaining to make our position clear and I suspect that all colleges which take need into very serious account in awarding scholarships have a task in public relations in making their principles and policies understood. Is this a matter on which a considerable number of colleges are ready to present a united front? The "new thought" about scholarship awards needs to be spread to the other groups in our population which are concerned with scholarships, especially as we look forward to much larger numbers of applicants for scholarship assistance in the next 10 or 20 years.

What are some of the chief current problems in the administration of scholarship awards? First, who should make the decisions on scholarship awards? There is no "right" answer to this question. Even with all the data which are now available, the selection of scholarship winners remains and should remain an art rather than a science. To choose those human beings who have such notable qualities that we should make a considerable invest-

ment to ensure their further education is subtle, imaginative work. There is no substitute here for experienced college officials and faculty members who have achieved "expertise" in sizing up the potentialities and achievements of young people, and who know the particular college and can relate to it the abilities and achievements of the particular candidate. Some places use committees of faculty members, some administrators, some both. In many cases, alumnae get into the act, either by awarding money which they have raised to candidates of their choice, or by recommending candidates to the college. This is a whole subject in itself on which I dare not embark beyond saying that while raising money for scholarships is a great rallying point for alumnae groups and a valued contribution to colleges, differences of opinion between college administration and alumnae club as to who is to receive the money is a prime source of alienation of alumnae affections. Where should the money come from? Most scholarship money comes as bequests or gifts, sometimes with odd restrictions which make for the unhappiness of the awarding committee. In many cases, trustees add an additional sum from general funds to the scholarship budget, but whether this should be done and to what extent is always a matter of debate. Is there an ideal percentage of students on scholarships or an ideal proportion of a college fund which should be used for scholarships? In other words, how far should a college go in building up scholarship funds for the advantage of certain students at the expense of others of its activities which may serve all its students equally? These are questions which every college must consider. What about other sources of student aid, such as remunerative work in place of outright scholarship grant, or loan funds, which so few students seem to want? Every scholarship committee has problems of renewal of awards, problems which are especially acute when the student's academic situation changes for the worse or his family's financial situation changes for the better. Multiple applications give scholarship officers their worst headaches today. They walk a tightrope from which they may fall equally disastrously by offering more money than they have and being taken up on it or by offering no more than they have and being left with a fair portion of it at a time when they can no longer make intelligent use of it. Groups of colleges with many appli-

cants in common have found consultation about scholarship policy and scholarship awards very helpful in "gambling" intelligently, but such consultations have been limited to institutions accustomed to work together on other matters and have illuminated only one corner of the jungle. In short, wise and effective award of scholarships is at present very difficult and threatens to become more difficult, but nevertheless the results of all this struggle are of great value to such colleges as those represented here. If I may be allowed to speak from my experience at Mount Holyoke, we have for many years been basing our awards on need as well as merit and know that our scholarship holders could not be in our student body without the financial aid which the college gives them, and we have been delighted to observe that the incidence of academic distinction, in terms of election to Phi Beta Kappa and the like, is greater among them than it is among non-scholarship students. Scholarship awards carefully administered mean not only diversity but quality.

What may be the effects of the National Merit Foundation awards and other similar national programs, under which the money goes directly to the student? The implications and possibilities of this system are great and as yet of course not fully perceived. It is possible and to be hoped for that these new programs will bring into the lists of applicants for college, students who would otherwise have thought college education and especially expensive college education impossible for them. If these programs bring forward a group of relatively unsophisticated (as to college-going) but very able and desirable youngsters wrapped in U. S. treasury notes and bearing in their hands "cost of education" bonuses for the colleges of their choice, I shrink from contemplation of the strain which this will put on the ethics of some field representatives and on the knowledge of some high school guidance officers. These "privately endowed" individuals now become the choosers, the colleges the chosen, and colleges will need to take all legitimate and honest measures within their powers to inform these young people about the philosophy, characteristics and effect of their educational programs. And this will especially be a matter of vital concern to women's colleges, a species little known or prized in many areas and in many social groups in the United States. These new programs may have

marked effect on the use of scholarship funds in the hands of the colleges. Do the National Merit Foundation et al. skim off the cream, leaving individual colleges to make offers to the runners-up? Will these outside awards which scholarship winners bring with them to college move college trustees correspondingly to cut down supplementary scholarship appropriations from general funds, with the result that these new and large programs of outside aid may not greatly increase the total amount of scholarship money available? These and many other aspects of these new scholarship arrangements remain to be seen, but essentially these new programs are greatly to be welcomed and especially by tuition-charging, privately-supported colleges as indications that in this country there prevails an increasingly mature view of the importance and the role of financial assistance in establishing equality of educational opportunity at the college level.

FROM THE BOUNDARY PERSPECTIVE

HUBERT C. NOBLE

GENERAL DIRECTOR, COMMISSION ON CHRISTIAN HIGHER EDUCATION,
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN THE U. S. A.

I SPEAK as one who seems destined to dwell in the no-man's land between the Christian church and the Christian college. I call it a no-man's land because while I feel at home in the church and feel at home on the campus, I no longer feel completely at home in either situation and am sometimes shot at from both sides. I have friends in both church and college, but the friends with whom I feel most at ease are those who share with me a dedicated yet critical appreciation of church and campus.

Since no-man's land suggests conflict, perhaps the Tillichian phrase "on the boundary" would be a more accurate description of this area in which I have dwelled for 11 years as a college chaplain and now must try to understand from a national and general perspective. For it is not for me to speak about the problems of education—that is your field. It is not for me to speak about the problems of the church—that is the responsibility of church leaders. I must try to make some constructive sense of this boundary area where the two come together. This is no simple task for there are many on both sides who are not sure they belong together. I sometimes realize that my situation is not unlike that of the circus performer who rode two horses around the arena until for some unknown reason as they rounded the curve the horses drifted apart. Then the performer, his weight delicately balanced on each, could get full support from neither and ignominiously sprawled in the sawdust.

I am here because I believe the horses belong together—or perhaps to use a more apt metaphor, I believe in the lifelong marriage of the Christian faith and higher education. I prefer the marriage analogy because I believe in a unity which holds church and college together while respecting the individuality and

NOTE: Address given at the luncheon meeting, Commission on Christian Higher Education, National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U. S. A., Jefferson Hotel, St. Louis, 10 January 1956.

unique task of each. I believe that such a unity is indispensable to the highest development of each. I believe that their separation or divorce, as does any divorce, warps and stunts the development of their children—the young people about whom both are vitally concerned.

For this reason, I see the first and most crucial challenge facing the Christian church and Christian college—that of developing a true marriage. I am not sure how far I should try to push this metaphor, but the fact is that in many situations our churches and colleges are living in sin. By this I mean that all too often church and college are not seeking a complete union that involves the total beings of each in a purpose that transcends both. This may sound like a technical definition of plain old sin but I feel it to be a true one.

There are many in the church who seek union with the college merely to further church ends. They seek an opportunity to get at and “evangelize” students, they want leaders who are “educated” in terms of certain settled or preconceived ends or they see in the college an object of moral uplift. And they sometimes create in the college a reaction somewhat like that of the disgruntled gentleman in London who one day called Dr. Leslie Weatherhead and cried, “Parson, will you please stop Miss Jones from trying to save her soul on me.”

On the other hand, too many colleges seek unity with the church as a source of financial support. They want direct aid or to get at parishioners who can give such aid. Or they see in the church a source of high-grade students or a medium through which good “public relations” may be developed with the public at large. Unity on such a basis as this, like a marriage contracted for self-interest, is respectable prostitution and doomed to failure. Mutual exploitation, even by consent for a worthy goal, is not marriage. True unity involves common dedication to a high purpose that includes both church and college.

Some of us are seeking this easy unity of mutual advantage because we assume that church and college simply drifted apart and it is simply a case of deciding to get together again. Such an attitude suggests an attitude of irresponsibility and triviality on the part of church and college that completely ignores history. The Christian church and its colleges didn’t drift apart or separate for no reason. There developed an understanding of faith

and education on both sides that made the relationship seem no longer essential or at least no longer worth the strain of the tensions and problems. And we will not truly be united until we see that the advantages of union for each are really concomitant values or by-products of a unity we believe in for its own sake.

The fact is that on every side there are basic questions to be answered that cannot be answered separately, but only as we face them together. What does it mean to serve God with all our hearts and minds through an institution dedicated to the things of the mind? How can the college be tied to a church that by its very nature must rest on a conviction of dogma without the college being bound and stifled by that dogma? How can the church be bound to a college that by its very nature must examine and question all truth without the church having its faith undermined by tentativeness? How can church and college transmit a faith and a tradition without indoctrination that violates the free personality development of those for whom they are responsible?

How can the church help the Christian college include a worshipping community as part of the academic community? The church says we can worship only in one of the great liturgical traditions or where the word is rightly preached and the sacraments properly administered. But because the church can come to no common mind on these matters the academic community must either divide itself to worship or be satisfied with superficial "religious observances" that belong to no tradition. Must the Christian academic community be divided or become a sect to worship its Lord? We in colleges have been underestimating our stake in the contemporary ecumenical movement and particularly in the theme now being studied for the next gathering of the World Council of Churches, "The Nature of the Unity We Seek." The answer to that may have tremendous consequences for the Christian college and we would be well advised to join our voices in the discussions that are now taking place.

What I am trying to say is that any unity of Christian church and college that goes beyond the superficial and expedient, means that we insist on taking the church seriously, insist on taking the liberal arts college seriously and taking our unity seriously. This is no simple task to which we set ourselves.

For this reason it may well be that we will not make much real progress in this unity until we make further progress in under-

standing the meaning of a Christian philosophy of education. There are many of us at the present time who feel that there exists a vacuum in the philosophy of higher education. Higher education is asking many questions for which there are no answers in the present philosophies. A similar feeling in the life of the church some years ago resulted in what we now call the contemporary theological renaissance—a great ferment of thought that sought fresh understanding of the nature of the Christian gospel. Out of this ferment great theologians arose—Barth, Brunner, Tillich, Niebuhr and others—who have been pointing new directions and stirring fresh vitality in the life of the church.

A similar dissatisfaction and ferment have been going on for some time now in higher education, but have any great minds arisen speaking with commanding voices that have pointed to new directions and stirred fresh vitality? I recently asked this question of Dr. Goodwin Watson of Teachers College, Columbia. His answer was—"No! We seem to be fussing over whether Johnny can read."

The tragedy is that we who are concerned for Christian higher education are not ready with intellectual leadership to fill the vacuum. However, I dare to believe that some of the most vital thinking out of which some of the answers may come is now being done by Christian theologians and philosophers. Further, I believe that the stimulation and encouraging of this thought is one of the major tasks of the Commission on Christian Higher Education and a basic reason why *The Christian Scholar* must continue its good work and get a wider hearing.

A third problem that church and college must seriously tackle together is discovering the answer to how the development of faith and character are guided in liberal education. Secular education shares this concern for the whole person and has tried to meet it through an emphasis on "spiritual values" which to many of us are too disembodied or "cutflower" to provide a satisfactory answer. But again, unfortunately, we in the Christian colleges haven't done much better. In far too many of our colleges there is little serious dedication of resources to giving guidance in the development of faith and moral and spiritual depth. Here the outcomes largely depend on chance friendships, the influence of living groups and the mass communications media. How can we make the character influences of dor-

mitories, fraternities and sororities responsible, positive and constructive? I do not know of a single college in the country where this problem is being faced seriously with adequate resources of funds and imaginative leadership. I hope this statement grows out of my limited knowledge and that after this meeting many of you will come up and tell me of significant experiments.

Finally, it seems to me church and college need each other to find the answer to responsible social concern, or as Richard Niebuhr puts it, to discover the true relation of Christ and culture. The church no longer follows the visionary moralism of the old social gospel, but it has not lost the social concern expressed in the social gospel era and speaks of the responsible Christian society. However, to give direction to what is meant by responsible Christian action is proving to be baffling and complex so that many, despairing of clear answers, are retreating to preoccupation with theological refinement. The colleges, whatever may have been their past liberal aberrations, are now completely disillusioned with any form of collectivism and are committed to individualism and freedom. But they are failing at the point of dynamic and in giving answer to the question "Freedom for What?" What are the answers of freedom and individualism to the questions for which collectivism professed to be the answer?

Here it seems to me is where the Christian concepts of "vocation," "the individual in community" and "the responsible society" need to be joined with the social science concern for facts, classification and clarification. Here is a way in which impulse and direction may be brought into constructive and effective unity.

Some may feel that I have placed undue emphasis upon the so-called theoretical to the neglect of the immediate practical needs of our colleges. I would assure them that there will be no neglect of practical needs wherever we can help to meet them. However, I have spoken as I have because of a firm conviction that both church and college will help each most in meeting practical needs as they share a common sense of great purpose to which they are mutually dedicated. In seeking that purpose and working for all that it may mean for all of us, I look forward to sharing your fellowship.

SOME FUNCTIONS OF THE ACADEMIC DEAN

JAMES P. BAXTER, III
PRESIDENT, WILLIAMS COLLEGE

A FEW years after the war, a famous news columnist called me up on long distance and asked me to confirm a story that President Truman had appointed me chairman of a commission on the four-hour day. As Yankees do, I answered his question by asking another: what made him think that so brief a work-day was imminent? "Don't be evasive, doctor," he replied. "You know as well as we do that atomic energy for peaceful purposes is just around the corner and that cheaper electricity will cut the workday sharply. What is America to do with its new-found leisure?"

I pointed out that even if electricity could be produced free we should still face the more substantial costs of distributing it, and closed the discussion by predicting that if the average workday were eventually cut in half, as he surmised, there would be no respite for college presidents and deans.

One of the sharpest contrasts in modern life is between the increase of pressure on executives and the curtailment of the hours of labor for manual workers. If you ask any administrator whether his job has become easier or harder in the past three decades, he will wax eloquent on the increasing difficulty of policy-making. The only exception that I have encountered was the head of a tuberculosis sanatorium whose business had fallen off with the advance of science and the rise in the standard of living.

Certainly college and university presidents have faced tasks of ever-increasing complexity since I began to teach in 1921. Operating in a period of sharp inflation, they have had to run faster and faster, like the characters in "Alice in Wonderland," in order to keep standing still. To develop a crop of college presidents who can raise educational standards over the next 20 years of rising enrolments and teacher shortages will be as difficult as

NOTE: Address given at the 12th annual meeting of the American Conference of Academic Deans, Jefferson Hotel, St. Louis, 10 January 1956.

to produce at short notice several hundred four-minute milers.

Half a century ago Captain Alfred Thayer Mahan, the naval historian, was shown over the executive offices of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company by the then president. As a student of administration he was extremely curious to know who did what at the summit of the world's greatest public utility. When the tour was completed he thanked his host, and complimented him on the extraordinary success with which various functions had been allocated to vice presidents with clear lines of responsibility. There was one question however that perplexed him: what did the president himself find to occupy his time, once he had chosen his top administrative assistants? His host admitted that if he were a better administrator he might have been able to delegate everything. But there was one area for which he had not yet found the right man, and he was still having to cope with it himself. That area concerned the chief problems that the company would face 15 or 20 years later.

This colloquy between the naval historian and the great corporation executive often pops into my mind when I am trying to solve the problems of the next week and next month, and to find time for work on my academic budget for the ensuing year. What a paradise the academic administrator's life would be if he could devote all his days to long-range planning!

All of us are conscious of the need for it when we look ahead to the huge numbers of students who will be knocking at our doors and wonder how we are going to find nearly three qualified teachers for each one the country has today. We have set up planning groups in one guise or another, in all of which the academic dean is naturally a key man.

For the college or university president has been spread very thin under the pressure of trying to do more with the inadequate number of dollars, each of which has lost half of its purchasing power. If you have ever watched the cold-rolling of plates in a modern steel mill you will know what I mean. The squeeze produces heat, noise and a much thinner product. Soon they may have to fold the president double to enable him to cast a shadow. You will realize, of course, that I am speaking figuratively.

Meanwhile, as they go through the heavy steel rolls, the presi-

dents have been rapidly delegating more and more to an increasing number of provosts, vice presidents, deans of the faculty, academic deans, deans of students, deans of freshmen. These in turn have delegated more and more to assistant deans, whose name is legion. To draw the boundary lines between their tasks would be as difficult as to redraw the map of Europe in detail at the close of a world war. Even to distinguish broadly among the functions of these proliferated officials involves me in semantic difficulties unsuited for a luncheon discussion. . . .

To escape confusion as well as anger and aggravation, I shall duck the question of the proper allocation of functions among the decanal officials, which varies considerably from institution to institution. Instead, I shall concentrate on some of the most important attributes of the academic dean, all of which involve even more long-range planning than is usually allotted to them. If I omit the important function of discipline, it is not for lack of appreciation of its importance, but because there is so little I could say about it that you do not know better than I. Discipline is of vital importance to the maintenance of student morale, the relations of the college with parents and the community, and the rehabilitation of students who, in the apt phrase of the prayer book, "turn from their wickedness and live," indeed often live lives of great usefulness and distinction. In this field deans as probation officers are called upon to play a role as sacred as that of doctors and the clergy.

In listing fields of effort for deans to cultivate I am somewhat abashed, first by a lively sense of all I ask from my own deans, and second by my knowledge of how much you all sacrifice in the way of teaching and of scholarly production. When I think of the books you might have written but for your administrative duties there comes to my mind the passage in which Proust reports the death of Bergotte. "They buried him, but all through the night of mourning, in the lighted windows, his books, arranged three by three, kept watch, like angels with outspread wings, and seemed, for him who was no more, the symbol of resurrection."

The first function of the dean to which I wish to direct attention today is his role in curriculum planning. As you all know, this makes heavy demands on his tact, patience and statesman-

ship. If the faculty accept him as a wise leader, relying on his proven scholarship and his administrative "know-how," he may pilot necessary reforms between the Scylla of a fixed budget and the Charybdis of departmental vested interests. It is easy enough to devise attractive improvements in course offerings that would change the faculty-student ratio from 1 to 10 to 1 to 8. But this change if approved might preclude a substantial improvement in faculty salaries when that is the greatest need of the college world today. We need it to offset the remaining ill effects of wartime and postwar inflation and to make the teaching profession more attractive to new recruits of high promise.

Speaking of Charybdis, you know how hard it is to bring any curriculum reform to safe harbor past the shoals of departmental jealousies. The tradition of faculty control over the curriculum is an ancient and honorable one, but the results sometimes remind one of the frequently-voiced criticism that the Constitution of 1787, though wondrously equipped with checks and balances to prevent anything objectionable from being done, is not so well geared for positive action in time of emergency. Listening to faculty discussion of far-reaching curriculum proposals, I am sometimes reminded of Aristotle's comment in Book III of his greatest masterpiece, that politics concerns itself with who gets what, when and how. The dean may have as arduous a task in reconciling vested interests as a tariff reformer has in meeting the objections of manufacturers at a hearing of the Committee on Ways and Means and then going on to win his battle on the floor of the House.

His chances of success would be greatly improved if the members of the various departments could look on him as a crew coach. One of the most beautiful sights in the world is a smooth-running eight-oared shell, where there is no check to the run because the timing is so perfect and the application of force so harmonized that the strength of each oarsman contributes the maximum to the common purpose. The coach tries to develop the strength of each oarsman, it is true, but also to combine it effectively with the developed strength of the seven others so that all are pulling together. Watch two shells on the river and you will see the better coached eight hold its own against its rival at a lower beat and then pull ahead towards the finish.

So much attention is paid in war colleges to the lessons of history that they lay themselves open to the criticism of preparing their students to win not the next war but the last one, or the war before that, or the Civil War, or even the Napoleonic Wars. Curriculum planning is too often open to similar criticism: that the faculty planners are preparing men and women to live in the last quarter-century, not the next. One of the most important jobs a dean has is to hold up before his colleagues a forecast of what demands society will make of our students in the years ahead. In a recent manifesto the Bell Telephone Company of Pennsylvania declared: "Business leadership is getting harder. A generation ago it called for 'knowing the business.' Today it calls for knowing mankind. Since humanity is dynamic, tomorrow the job will be even more demanding."

The typical American of a century ago was a jack-of-all-trades; now he is a specialist who is building, let us hope, on a sound general education. Since my college days the proportion of college students going on to graduate schools has risen from one in four to one in two. As the cold war becomes intensified, we realize that the best chance of preventing it from becoming a hot one is to produce more statesmen, scientists and engineers. We may find the percentage seeking postgraduate work steadily rising. Let us plan our curricula for the long haul—for meeting the crucial shortages of teachers, ministers and scientists—not simply for quick, easy placement in today's market place.

The second function of the academic dean that I should like to stress today has to do with his role as a thoughtful elder statesman, a "watchdog" if you will, concerned, as the president and trustees should be, with the long-run interests of the faculty. For the next 20 years at least, it seems clear that teachers will be in short supply. We shall obviously have to pay them more, to render the teaching profession more attractive to new recruits. We have a long way to go before we restore to teachers' salaries the purchasing power of 1939, and even in that year when inflation began with an expanded armaments program, the teacher's pay was sorely inadequate. As the Ford Foundation well put it: "Merely to restore professors' salaries to their 1939 purchasing power would require an average increase of at least 20 per cent. Even this would not bring teachers in our private colleges

to their economic position before World War II in relation to that of other professions and occupations. They have not begun to share the benefits of the expanded productive power of this nation, and the whole education system suffers from this fact."

The responsibility for seeking funds to improve teachers' salaries rests on other officials than the dean, but he should play an important role as a needler. He should remind the president, if the president needs reminding, that it is not a question simply of filling the teaching staff but of filling it with competent, dedicated and inspiring teachers. There is an analogy here with the problem a life insurance company faces in recruiting its agency forces. It is not just a matter of hiring so many hundred new agents a year, but of discovering and holding enough men of high ability to face the competition and make a real contribution to the company's surplus. What makes the real difference between one college and another is not the number of its faculty per thousand students but the quality of its faculty, the percentage of them that can kindle enthusiasm, draw out the students and inspire a larger proportion of them to want to be scholars and teachers themselves. The men who can do this are the ones who create the educational surplus that distinguishes a strong college from a weak one.

The academic dean should be prepared to needle the president, if need be, to increase fringe benefits as well as to increase salaries. Dean Brooks of Williams has achieved a national reputation in this respect, as the originator of the Faculty Children's Tuition Exchange Plan. When this plan got off to a slow start we supplemented it at Williams, beginning in 1950, by scholarship grants to sons and daughters of our own faculty, no matter what college they might be attending. Now that it has spread to 200 institutions, there is still much to be said for colleges supplementing it by direct grants whenever possible.

Dean Brooks presented a challenging paper on the whole question of fringe benefits at the annual meeting of the American Council on Education last October. He is serving as chairman of a committee of the Williams faculty set up to consider additional fringe benefits. Among these I think he and I would rank first the provision of additional adequate housing at satisfactory rentals, and the offering of second mortgage loans at low rates to

faculty members who wish to build. Dean Brooks stresses the tax advantages of fringe benefits as compared with pay increases costing the college the same amount. Like most college presidents, I find that the candidates I interview are more interested in salary and in housing than in group life insurance, group health and casualty insurance or any other fringe benefit except housing. All aspects of fringe benefits deserve careful study, in which the academic dean is in a good position to take a leading role.

A third and most important part of his watchdog function is to represent at a high level the interests of the younger members of the faculty. Since most colleges and all universities recruit more young men than they can find places for in the higher ranks of their faculty, there is a considerable turnover in the rank of assistant professors and a much sharper one at the instructor level. In view of the magnitude of our teacher shortage these young men constitute a scarce critical material, perhaps as vital to the nation in the long pull as fissionable uranium. If by careless or unfair treatment we drive them out of the teaching profession into some other walk of life, we shall have much to answer for.

The internships established for a period of years at several colleges by The Fund for the Advancement of Education have pointed the way to one important method of conserving and improving our limited stock of teachers. More institutions should in their own self-interest adopt the practices inculcated by these grants. The academic dean would then see to it that no department required more than a three quarter teaching load from the novice and should make sure that the department and the preceptor conducting the seminar on teaching methods perform their helpful supervisory functions.

In the selection of instructors for reappointment and promotion, it is, as Chief Justice Chase said in another connection, "as necessary to seem right as to be right, and as necessary to be right as to seem right." It is clear that decisions on promotion cannot safely be left to departments without external check. At Williams, the president performs this function with the help of an advisory committee of five, three of them named by the faculty, plus the dean and the chairman *pro tempore* of the faculty. I

remind these invaluable colleagues from time to time that one of our departments, within the memory of man but happily before my time, denied promotion to two instructors who eventually became department heads at two of the most famous eastern universities. The dean has proved a most useful continuing member of this hard-working advisory committee, partly because he notes the requests for transfers to or from an individual instructor. These often indicate nothing more than a preference for a section meeting at a more convenient hour, but they may be more significant. Anything this group of deans to whom I am speaking today can do to improve the lot of the younger faculty member is, in my opinion, of first-rate importance. In the administration of the funds we have for grants in aid of research, we try to see to it that the younger members of the faculty get their fair share. We pay for the typing of doctoral dissertations by faculty members and take a lively interest in their subsequent research activities. The dean plays the chief role in bringing post-doctoral fellowships to the attention of faculty members, though the departments also are actively helpful.

In conclusion, I should like to stress a third role for the academic dean besides his functions as a curriculum planner and as a watchdog of the faculty. He should in my opinion have the major responsibility for interesting a larger percentage of undergraduates in a teaching career.

Much of this work will naturally have to be done by individual faculty members by whom the student is inspired. But the chief of staff for *operation recruitment* should be the dean. Here, more than anywhere, President Lowell's dictum is true, that "it is the inspired moments that count." Any faculty member who can think up a new way to increase the prestige of teaching in the eyes of undergraduates or of the public at large is laying up treasures in heaven. During World War II when we could foresee the grave teacher shortage that would follow the Armistices, I persuaded members of the Williams faculty to write to undergraduates and young alumni whom they thought might make good teachers asking them to consider our profession along with others when they were making their postwar plans. A score of these young men accepted positions on our staff after the close of hostilities and are still with us or teaching at some other college or university.

Last October, on the 200th anniversary of the death of our Founder, we sent the following certificate to every graduate of the College who had chosen a teaching career:

On the two hundredth anniversary of the bequest of Ephraim Williams to found a free school in Williamstown, the President, Trustees and Faculty of Williams College send greetings and congratulations to (name inserted) who, through his choice of teaching as a profession, is seeking in a new generation the goal set by the Founder, who said, 'I have given something for the benefit of those unborn.'

Out of the goodly fellowship of academic deans I hope to see emerge hundreds of more important ideas for enhancing the attractiveness of our profession and winning for it new recruits of high quality. These are more precious than buildings and athletic victories, for they kindle sparks that light new fires of scholarship and of inspired teaching.

THE NEXT HALF DECADE IN SOUTHERN EDUCATION—OR THEREABOUTS

MARTEN TEN HOOR

DEAN, COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA

IF education were a science, so long a period of involvement and observation as I have enjoyed ought to have produced enough understanding of the fundamental processes of Southern education to form a reasonably safe basis for the prediction of future developments. But there are some besetting circumstances which make prediction an uncertain business. In the first place—and if there is anything of which I am certain it is this—education is *not* a science. When I look back upon my experience I am struck by the number of developments in Southern education, and for that matter in education generally, which no one seems to have anticipated.

In the second place, educators are by no means as free to determine the course of education as they sometimes think. To be sure, we often talk as if we were, especially when we are philosophizing about education. It is not uncommon for theorists, having hypnotized themselves by long contemplation of some dazzling new “basic principle” or “fundamental objective,” to make resounding promises to the general public, which incidentally is always hoping for miracles. But the forces that produce events in the larger cultural setting in which education operates sometimes pay little attention to the aims and objectives of educators. World War II, for example, accounted for the development of the practical application of atomic energy and the consequent concentration in science and engineering on *education to destroy*, on as great a scale as possible. As a more recent example, let me mention the problem of desegregation, in which the decisions are also being made for us, though we shall have to struggle with the consequences.

Another limitation by which we are embarrassed in our attempts at prediction is that we have so little exact knowledge of

NOTE: An address delivered, substantially in this form, at the annual dinner meeting of the Southern Association of Independent Schools, 28 November 1955, Miami, Florida.

cause-and-effect relationships in education. We make many categorical predictions in this area. But the task of proving after the fact that a certain specific educational endeavor actually produced a certain specific effect is quite a different matter. Every experienced educator with an observant and honest eye for realities knows full well that the effect is sometimes the exact opposite of what was intended. The dogmatist will find it an interesting exercise to take a private inventory and to try to account for his present state of educational grace in terms of specific cause-and-effect relationships.

Because of the above-mentioned difficulties I have little confidence in my ability to predict what is to come in Southern education. The best I can do is to report some recent developments in our region and venture the assumption that they seem likely to continue. I shall try to be as practical and specific as possible in order to avoid wallowing comfortably—and safely—in the realm of generalities. To demonstrate my sincerity, let me mention a conviction which we surely all have in common: we shall need more money. I regret that I cannot tell you how educators could be helpful in convincing the people and the philanthropists and the politicians of this. I was educated to be a philosopher and that is no preparation for loosening the public purse, or conspiring in smoke-filled rooms, or beguiling philanthropists. Nor has my experience as a dean taught me anything that could be useful in this connection. How to raise money is a trade secret of top-flight administrators; deans only know how it should be spent.

There is another prediction which we can make with safety: we shall have many more students. This will be due not only to the normal geometric progression of population increase, and the higher birth rate of the World War II period, but also to the desire of young people to have larger families than has been the case in the recent past. Finally, in the area of higher education there is a factor of which education itself is the principal cause, namely, the steady increase in the percentage of students who continue their education on the college level. This source of increase is of special importance for us because the South has for many years lagged behind in this respect.

What can we do about this welcome but embarrassing increase?

On the level of elementary and intermediate education the schools themselves can do nothing but wrestle with this surging tide. But higher education, it seems to me, is in a somewhat different position. Our colleges and universities can raise admission requirements—if they have the courage. If that is too drastic, let them at least reduce the waste effort which they are now expending on those students who exhibit continued indifference to their opportunities or who clearly manifest an exceptional capacity for resistance to the efforts to educate them.

I have little patience with the objection that such selective procedures are undemocratic. Democracy is committed to extend opportunity, not to nourish the neglect of it or to ignore inability to use it. I think it is a very good sign that the presidents of two state universities have recently come out openly for the elimination of waste effort and lost motion in higher education. This is a matter that needs realistic consideration and courageous action. It should be remembered in this connection that the diligent weeding out of indifferent students is not final or fatal; after a change of heart, they can return to college. There is always an institution that will accept them if the academic record is not too black. Moreover, the extensive development of continuation education assures future opportunity to those who failed to take advantage of it at the normal age. That private institutions are in a more strategic position in this matter of selectivity is of course obvious. Are they taking full advantage of this?

A third prediction which we can make with reasonable confidence and which, though not directly educational in nature, has important educational implications, is that the steady industrialization of our area will continue, if not increase in tempo and extent. One effect of this will be an increase in economic resources potentially available for the support of public and private education. This development will also bring with it a public demand for the expansion of education in commerce and business administration and a consequent emphasis on this area in our colleges and universities and even in our schools. Such education will undoubtedly improve the conduct of business enterprises and thus in its turn stimulate the further expansion of commerce and industry.

It is relevant to our look into the future to note that we are

currently witnessing a significant change in the conception of commercial as well as of other types of professional education. All of you have heard much talk about the need of more study of the humanities as preparation for the professions. Much of this talk, I have come to believe, is a kind of educational Fourth of July oratory, and for public consumption. But there has been some action. A number of important institutions in the country have substantially liberalized their preprofessional and professional curricula.

Recently the manifestation of interest of business and industry in liberal education has taken a new and somewhat unexpected direction. Personnel representatives who come to our campuses have been asking to interview liberal arts college seniors. These visitors say that they find commerce school graduates quite satisfactory for positions which require special technical skills such as accounting, but that they have learned that liberal arts college graduates are generally better prepared to assume positions involving "human relations" both inside and outside the business or industry. They regularly mention the fact that they want "broadly educated" men and women to train for executive positions. They seem to be looking for people who have some understanding of the social setting of business and industry and who have been taught to think of other human beings as something more than consumers. They seem also to be interested in applicants who have a somewhat greater language facility than is envisaged in courses in business English.

Now the typical academic professor is inclined to be a bit cynical about this new interest in the liberal arts college and to interpret it as merely another attempt to develop bigger and better business. In my opinion it is considerably more than this. I think it represents a change in the general *social* attitude of *some*—please note that I did not say "*all*"—of our leaders in business and industry, just as the increasing interest of great corporations in giving financial support to education represents more than a desire to outwit the tax collector. At the least, it represents a recognition that the larger social problems involved in business and industry cannot be safely ignored. At the best, it represents an expansion of sensitivity to human values—a concern about human rights, if you will—and a manifestation of willingness to take these values into consideration.

The above is an example of a shift in educational interest in a segment of the environing society. I turn now to two examples of the development in organized education itself of interest in special social problems, problems with which our kinds of educational institutions were formerly but little concerned. The first is the extensive development of interest on our campuses in the problem of mental health. This is clearly a reflection of the situation in society at large: first in respect to the incidence of cases of mental disturbance among our students; secondly in respect to the organized attention given to such cases by our personnel services; thirdly in respect to the development of the scientific study of problems of mental health by our departments of psychology and our psychological clinics.

I shall not go into the question of whether or not the increase in cases of mental disturbance among our students is real or apparent. Nor shall I concern myself with the rapid development of teaching and research in this area of knowledge. My particular interest is in the "behavior" problems which this situation has generated for the educational institution as a special and more or less self-contained type of social community. The most serious of these can be stated in the form of a question, to which we have so far given little attention but to which we shall shortly have to find an answer: What is the extent of the responsibility of the "normal" educational institution for the education or re-education of students who suffer from some form of mental illness? Now I know what answer will be given by some who are specially concerned with this problem. It will be asserted that the responsibility of an educational institution is the same as that of society at large: the school must learn to get along with these disturbed people to the same degree and in the same fashion that any civilized and enlightened community does. A community is not justified in separating them from normal contacts except for two reasons: the cure of the patient and the safety of the community.

I share the humanitarian point of view which this reflects. But I cannot accept one basic implication, namely that the kind of educational institution of which I am speaking can be considered identical with the social community in the larger sense of the term. To bring the issue squarely before you, let me give you a concrete case in which we are brought face to face with

this problem: a student is found guilty of stealing some valuable equipment from a laboratory. When interviewed by the authorities he states that he remembers absolutely nothing of the breaking and entering, of the hiding of the stolen articles, etc. When asked how he can explain this, he states that his sweetheart jilted him a few days before and that ever since he has been emotionally so upset that he was often not conscious of what he was doing.

Now what should the institution do with this student? Obviously, a visit to a clinical psychologist and a psychiatrist is indicated. Suppose now that examination by competent authorities reveals that the student is indeed emotionally upset and that it is possible that his explanation of his breaking and entering is the correct one. (I pass over the very important question as to how the cause-effect relationship between being jilted and stealing could be scientifically established.) What should the school do next? Put him on probation, require him to take treatment and allow him to go on with his academic work? Or expel him?

Before anyone—psychiatrist, psychologist, educator or layman—can answer this question, we must have an answer to several other questions. Should “normal” institutions allow students who commit crimes or near-crimes because of temporary or permanent aberrations to remain on the campus on the ground that they are responsible for the rehabilitation of such students? What will be the effect on the university community of a policy of tolerance such as is advocated by some personnel experts? What for example will happen to standards of honesty in examinations if dishonesty is not punished, or is less severely punished, in the case of individuals who suffer from “mental disturbances” or who are assumed so to do?

It is obvious that, given extensive institutional tolerance and given the quick wits of some of our less worthy students, we must reckon with the fact that by such tolerance we may be encouraging the development of what might be called “moral malingering,” that is, the *pretending* of moral irresponsibility, a new behavior pattern which would cause us no end of trouble. In our concern for the abnormal student, let us not forget that we are also responsible for the education, including the *moral* education, of the normal student. There is such a thing as a “moral climate.” We must therefore not ignore the problem of contagion.

Let me make it clear that I am not questioning the existence of a certain degree of responsibility of the educational institution for the mental health of its students. What I am concerned about is the extent to which the assumption of this responsibility should be permitted to affect the institution's over-all disciplinary practices. I am convinced that the time has come for everybody educationally involved to have a sharp and sober look at this problem.

The second recent educational development which seems likely to demand more of our attention in the future is the education of the physically handicapped. For a few years now some of our larger institutions have begun to provide educational facilities to young people suffering from speech defects, from various types of spastic conditions, etc. Before the time of this development we were inclined to feel that such young people ought to be taken care of at institutions specially provided for this purpose. Our present and more enlightened view is that they should from the beginning have the advantage of enrolment in "regular" educational institutions. We know that their difficulties are seriously complicated by lack of confidence and that this is in part a consequence of being excluded from normal contacts.

We have also learned that their presence in classes and elsewhere on the campus does not in any important respect interfere with the regular educational and social life of the institution. All we need to do is to provide them with clinical services, to make slight individual adaptations for them in educational requirements and to allow them to set their own tempo. Even if we had to do much more, it would be thoroughly justified. It is a heartwarming sight to see these handicapped young people getting an education in a normal environment. It is humanizing for teachers and students alike to have them on the campus. To be sure not all institutions can provide educational facilities to the same degree, but possibly all can do something. Certainly, here is a new task which we can undertake with confidence and with the promise of great satisfaction.

Let me turn now to the consideration of two broader but less tangible educational developments. Since cultural influences which are in themselves not formally educational are undoubtedly playing a part in these developments and making them complex in nature, I shall not risk any predictions concerning them.

I refer first to the reported decline in over-all enrolments in colleges for women. There are several possible explanations of this phenomenon most of which I am not able to evaluate and shall simply offer for what they may be worth.

One contributing factor can be identified with confidence, namely the postwar acceptance of men by colleges which had previously been for women only. With respect to the shift of the female student population as a whole, it has been suggested that it is a symptom of a general cultural change in the public attitude towards the relation of the sexes, including of course a change in the attitude of the young people themselves. One analyst explains this development on the college level as a result of the demand by young women for specialized and professional education of the type offered only by large coeducational institutions. It would certainly not be surprising if young women seriously inclined to music or drama, for example, should prefer the advantages of a university to those of a woman's college. Another observer attributes the shift in attendance to the attractions of extracurricular activities in large coeducational institutions. Possibly the lack of agreement on the objectives of education for women which has recently been manifested by leaders in the field has affected public confidence. The whole movement may of course be a passing phase soon to end and soon to be forgotten. In a democracy in which so many different conceptions of educational ends and means are being constantly advanced, and in which there is so great a variety of independent educational institutions, we must expect a variety of educational changes, superficial and basic, of temporary and of permanent significance.

The second of these developments to which I wish to call your attention is at the moment so complex and confused and has potentially such far-reaching effects that I can do little more here than identify it. I have reference to what has been described as "education moving off the campus." The oldest and most familiar phase of this movement is that of adult or continuation education and the accompanying establishment by universities of centers and branches in widely scattered communities. Associated with the somewhat informal and unstandardized courses given for adults who have no interest in earning degrees, there are segments of regular campus curricula intended for young people who for various reasons are not in a position to go to the central

campus but who wish to begin or continue their formal education.

A second phase of the extension movement developed during World War II. The establishment of military and civilian installations for pure and applied research related to the war effort resulted in great concentrations of educational personnel and educational facilities without any official connection with formal education institutions. After the war, these installations were not dismantled; on the contrary, they were reorganized on a permanent basis. Educational institutions soon realized that great resources were available at these locations, both in respect to personnel and equipment—and that a usually generous “uncle” owned and controlled all these riches. In consequence, a number of institutions now have various kinds of official educational tieups with these installations.

The third and latest area of development of off-campus education is the attempt of the military services to provide in-service educational opportunities for enlisted and official personnel. This has raised the issue between the military authorities and civilian educational institutions as to who should be in control of this in-service education. There are those among the military authorities who envisage and advocate a complete, self-contained educational system in the military services, to be operated independently of the civilian educational institutions. Extremists of this persuasion have been encouraged by the unyielding attitude of some of the ultra-traditionalists in our institutions and our accrediting agencies. We are now witnessing many and complicated efforts to work out compromises.

Whatever may develop in respect to the administration of this type of education, it seems likely that much of it will remain off the campus. I think it is our problem to do everything we can to assure that this education will be of high quality so that it will not compromise the educational institutions which are engaged in it. Possibly we should be a little less concerned about *where* education takes place and somewhat more concerned about *what kind* of education is being offered by centers and branches and at installations and military posts.

Now the problems which I have discussed up to this point are not unique to the South, though they may be more acute there, as for example the lack of financial resources. Have we no problems which we can claim, or deplore, as strictly our own?

To put it in a more constructive way: Are there any distinctive cultural values in Southern life with the preservation of which our educators should in the future be specially concerned? I think that this has generally been assumed to be the case.

Several books and countless articles have been written with the purpose of identifying what is unique in Southern culture and determining what aspects of that culture Southern education should strive to preserve. No review of all this material could be brief enough to be included in this discussion. Moreover there is much in this material which is dated. I think it is time for some sober but sympathetic scholar, or better, group of scholars, to take a fresh look at the matter and to make an analysis relevant to the present and helpful for the future.

What needs especially to be remembered in making such an analysis is that what was commendable in the past is not necessarily *realizable* in the present or future. To praise in words is not the same thing as to demonstrate in practice. The past can be immortalized in literature but the present is under the pressure of forces which pay little attention to what is so fondly remembered. It is hardly necessary to add that our Southern young people are showing less and less interest in the past and thus constitute a source of one of the forces by which the future will be shaped. It is useless to deplore the loss of what cannot be recovered. What is necessary is for education to analyze what is new, to identify the cultural values which bear promise of realization in new settings and to encourage young people to be loyal to them.

But these remarks evade the issue, namely the identification, if possible, of cultural values which are unique or specially characteristic of the South and which, as a matter of course, education should seek to preserve. I have reference to what might be called our general social disposition. I believe that we feel a greater mutual responsibility to make life agreeable than do people in other sections of the country, and people of many other countries for that matter. As a by-product of this social graciousness we have developed remarkable conversational gifts. Although much of this conversation is often nothing more than "happy talk" and of little importance in respect to content, it has, I believe, developed in our people, especially in our women, a *histrionic talent*; for underlying this kind of social behavior there is the sense, more or less conscious, of *performing*.

Coming now to the educational moral, I think the pervasiveness of this art of social histrionics accounts for the unusual quantity and quality of talent for artistic performance, especially in dramatics, which we find among our young people. I am inclined to think that it also helps to account for the ability of amateur musical groups to rise to remarkable heights of performance with less discipline and preparation than would be needed by young people who have been bred in a more socially restrained and, shall we say realistic, atmosphere. The poise and easy stage presence of our young people in solo performance is another by-product of this atmosphere. I think it is also related to the high incidence of writers and the extensive production of good literature which has aroused comment at home and abroad. And need I suggest to you that we may also find here some explanation of the talents of our noted—and notorious—Southern political orators?

Now I do not mean to suggest that there is not an element of social histrionics to be found in the life of polite society everywhere. My point is that it is more prevalent and more highly developed in our society. It is for that reason that observant visitors of life in the South have been known to remark that there seems to be an element of make-believe in our social life which everyone nevertheless seems to accept as "real." And they are sometimes led to wonder if this does not have the effect of creating romantic tendencies in our children which make trouble for them when they are subsequently plunged into the harsh realities of the contemporary struggle for existence. I believe that I have observed carefully and thought soberly in respect to this matter and I must confess that I cannot convince myself that this concern is justified. I have too often seen the most playful and frivolous of our young people plunge into marriage—and straitened circumstances—and face these realities not only with courage but with cheerfulness. I agree that we might do well to be a little more realistic; but let us by all means preserve our cheerfulness and our playfulness. On a university campus it is a good antidote to the stiff pedantry and stolid scholarship which we not infrequently find there. Let us not become too scholarly and too scientific. Scientists are rapidly developing machines which will ultimately be able to take our place if we make this kind of life ideal. We should not wish to find ourselves in the position of competing with machines.

If my interpretation of this "play" element in our culture is correct, it helps to explain a recent remarkable development in Southern education which, in turn, offers a basis for a prediction. I have in mind the matter of interest in the creative or applied arts. I feel sure that in the next decade or two we shall see a continued expansion in education and accomplishment in music, drama, creative writing, painting, sculpture and the other arts. Thirty years ago art departments in our Southern colleges and universities were a rarity. Now they are everywhere large and flourishing.

In part this development is nothing more than a catching up with other sections of the country. You will recall that H. L. Mencken used to amuse his readers by claiming that there was not an oboe player below the Mason and Dixon's line. Things were not that bad, but they were bad enough. These days we can point with satisfaction to eight or ten excellent symphony orchestras in large Southern cities, creditable orchestral and choral organizations on the campuses of many of our colleges and universities, a string-quartet-in-residence or two, a flourishing organization of Southern composers, most of them members of college and university faculties, and an annual Southern composers' forum which has attracted national attention. Let us also recall that it was a Southern city and a Southern symphony orchestra which was selected by one of the great Foundations to receive a handsome subvention to be used for the commissioning and performance of works by American composers.

In our consideration of the development of applied or creative arts in our region we must not forget however that this is in part only a reflection of a change in educational attitudes which has been national in scope. There was a time when educators were unanimous in their opinion that only the history and (possibly) the theory of the arts had a place in a liberal arts college, and that instruction in "creating" or "recreating" art belonged in conservatories and art institutes. It was considered treason to the high ideal of scholarship even to suggest that a doctor's degree might just as properly be given for composing a symphony as for talking learnedly about someone else did so. In those days no one seemed to feel that this is the opposite of the position taken in the natural sciences; that in chemistry, for example, the discovery of a new compound, rather than talk about it, is

rewarded with academic recognition. Today, in all except a few centers of education orthodoxy, this inconsistency has been recognized and corrected. It is also now generally recognized that instruction in the "*making*" of art is essential to the *understanding* of art. And, finally, there is a much more general appreciation of the contribution that education in the theory and practice of art makes to the private resources on which the individual must rely for a balanced and happy life.

Whatever the explanation of these developments in the realm of art, let us do all that we can in education to encourage the study and practice of the arts. All men need art for a variety of good reasons; we here in the South with our scattered population, our culturally handicapped areas, our long history of economic embarrassment, can especially appreciate the enlivening of our imaginations, the stimulation of our creative talents, the widening of our sympathies and our sensitivities—in short, the cultural enrichment which art brings to the human spirit. It would be a great misfortune if in our anxiety to welcome industry to the region we should lose sight of essential cultural interests, the realization of which lies within our grasp.

Here then are some impressions of the current educational scene which may, for the moment, offer some indications of what we may expect in the future. If I am to be held to the half decade mentioned in the title, I am willing to risk offering them as predictions. But further than that I would not care to go. As I have previously stated, there seem to me to be too many factors in education which are not under the control of educators. To be sure, it may be that administrators and faculties of private schools enjoy a greater degree of freedom of will than do those of publicly supported institutions. All of us, however, are in the bonds of the same world and the same time. There may come another catastrophe—a war or an economic depression—which will force us off the course which we are now pursuing. The pressure of the immediately environing culture may make it difficult for us to hold to all of our professional ideals and commitments. But there is little to be gained by speculating about possible future disaster. We have enough to do for the moment. To paraphrase the Good Book: Sufficient unto the day is the good—as well as the evil-thereof.

WHITHER THE SMALL COLLEGE?

WILLIAM K. SELDEN

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, NATIONAL COMMISSION ON ACCREDITING

AT the recent annual meeting of the Association of American Colleges, John W. Gardner, President of the Carnegie Corporation, spoke of the dilemma which a foundation executive faces in deciding whether to give money to institutions of strength and distinction or to those that lack present strength and distinction but may get more out of a grant. Comparing institutions to college departments he said, "The strong department will use the money more competently but the weak department needs it more." With his reference to the type of department or college which will use a grant more competently you may disagree, but as presidents of non-accredited institutions you undoubtedly will accept with enthusiasm his implication that the weaker institutions have greater need.

Prompted by Mr. Gardner's comment I have made a brief study of some of the smaller colleges in comparison with the large, relatively affluent universities. This study involved 221, or 22.7%, of the 971 regionally accredited degree-granting colleges and universities in the United States—162 small accredited colleges and 59 large colleges and universities. The basis of selection of the small institutions was twofold: a fall 1955 total enrolment of under 400 and/or an announced gift of less than \$80,000 for faculty salaries by the Ford Foundation. The larger institutions were selected on the basis of a total enrolment over 13,000 this past fall and/or an announced gift for faculty salaries of over one million dollars by the Ford Foundation.

The small, regionally accredited, degree-granting colleges considered in this study have many of the characteristics of the colleges you represent, with the exception of accreditation. In most cases, they are facing the same problems that you are encountering.

From a recent study made by the National Commission on Ac-

NOTE: Talk given at an informal meeting of presidents of non-accredited colleges on 8 April 1956 in Chicago, Illinois.

crediting we learned that the U. S. Office of Education 1955-1956 Directory of Higher Education listed over 140 non-regionally accredited institutions which grant the customary bachelor's degree. Of this number 55% were found to be church-related and 80% non-tax-supported; 71% had enrolments under 400.

The 162 regionally accredited small colleges in this present study show somewhat similar ratios. Only 9 are tax-supported (largely teacher education and specialized institutions), while 27 are independent non-church-related, and 126 are church-related. The church-related colleges include 49 Roman Catholic, 29 Presbyterian (both Northern and Southern), 16 Methodist, 9 Baptist and 23 related to various other denominations. They are distributed among 38 states.

Most of these are liberal arts colleges although 31 are devoted primarily to specialized programs; 86 are coeducational, 14 are for men only and 62 are women's colleges, mostly Roman Catholic. One tenth of the 162 are primarily for Negroes.

The great majority of these colleges, as with the non-accredited institutions, are encountering financial difficulties. Excluding the tax-supported institutions and the Roman Catholic institutions, most of which in this group have practically no endowment, the average endowment per institution increased 11.2% between 1951 and 1955, or from \$707,026 to \$786,534. In contrast, the increase in endowment for the large independent colleges and universities in the same period averaged 21.3%, or from \$35,065,056 to \$42,560,600. This larger percentage of increase in endowment makes the disparity even greater between the relative financial resources of the large universities and the small colleges. In addition, of the 125 smaller colleges which are to receive grants for faculty salaries from the Ford Foundation, only 10 are designated for bonuses in recognition of their efforts to improve faculty salaries. On the other hand, of the 38 large institutions to receive Ford grants, 25 are designated for bonuses. The announced grants (all subject to review) for these 38 institutions average over two million dollars each.

With regard to total enrolments, the 162 smaller colleges increased 14.2% in these four years, from an average of 283 in 1951 to 330 in the fall of 1955. The 38 large independent institutions increased on the average of only 3.8% but theirs was not the

problem of attaining an optimum enrolment but of holding their student bodies to a size which their facilities would permit them to serve effectively. On the other hand, the 21 large tax-supported institutions increased 18.4%, from an average of 16,063 in 1951 to 19,019 in the fall of 1955 and the pressure for a greater proportionate increase in these larger institutions is steadily mounting.

Phi Beta Kappa chapters have been established at 163 institutions. To be eligible for a chapter an institution must meet certain prerequisites which include a sound program in liberal education, a good faculty, a qualified student body and adequate financial support. With these qualifications in mind it is interesting to note that of the 59 large institutions studied, of which 5 are primarily scientific and engineering, 45 have Phi Beta Kappa chapters. Of the smaller colleges, only 5 have such chapters: 3 women's colleges, 1 men's college and 1 coeducational. (Of the 110 Phi Beta Kappa institutions receiving Ford Foundation grants for faculty salaries, 75 were designated to receive extra bonuses.)

Of special importance to the presidents of the non-accredited institutions is the fact that of these 162 small colleges, 28 were accredited between 1951 and 1955—despite the fact that the average age of their founding was 1883. The Roman Catholics have in recent years been founding more colleges as shown by the average age of 1905 of their 49 institutions in this study. A contrast is the average age of 1859 for the 29 Presbyterian colleges.

In studying these many small colleges which have on the average been in existence nearly three quarters of a century, one might well ask—are most of them being operated efficiently and effectively? John Dale Russell and James I. Doi, two eminent authorities on college administration, have pointed out that “institutions that have very limited resources typically tend to devote a smaller percentage of their expenditures to instruction than do colleges that are generously financed.” With this statement we approach the heart of accreditation, of Phi Beta Kappa chapters, of quality in education. The faculty is the important asset of any college. An institution which is not now devoting a high proportion of its income to instructional activities is likely

to find itself in a condition which will grow steadily worse in the coming years. Russell and Doi have also written, "With a critical shortage of teachers now evident and with no visible evidence of much improvement in the situation, it is obvious that growing tax-supported institutions will be outbidding many private institutions in order to have faculty on hand. If the small private college loses out in this competitive situation, it has lost one of its most potent appeals—a high quality of instruction provided on a relatively intimate teacher-student basis. It will take a faculty salary reserve fund of large proportions to make it possible for the small college to compete in a highly competitive market."

These statistics and quotations may leave you unduly disturbed and so in conclusion may I call your attention to encouraging developments that have been taking place among the Presbyterian (U. S.) church-related colleges in North Carolina. One month ago it was announced that a new four-year liberal arts Presbyterian college would be started in Laurinburg, North Carolina. This development is the culmination of a careful, deliberate and excellent study made by educational leaders at the request of the Church. Three struggling institutions are being consolidated into one new and larger institution at Laurinburg.

The report of this study emphasizes the inefficiency of a liberal arts college with fewer than 500-600 students (some believe the minimum should be 1,000), the frequent lack of academic stimulation in a small institution, the increasing attractiveness to students of coeducation and the importance of location of a college in a populated area. The basic theme of the entire report is summed up in these two statements: "As one regards the future he cannot but conclude that most of the colleges now in existence, except for special circumstances, may be needed in the future." But, "the general plight of small liberal arts colleges in these times of inflation, increasing operating costs and decreasing endowment earnings, makes it increasingly difficult to maintain so large a number of small institutions."

To face these problems requires a broad sense of social responsibility, keen foresight and able management. The Presbyterian Church (U. S.) has shown these qualities in North Carolina as it starts to build a new college of strength and distinction.

SOME CULTURAL ASPECTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

GRANGE WOOLLEY

PROFESSOR OF MODERN LANGUAGES, DREW UNIVERSITY

THE 1955 Summer Language Schools session of Middlebury College was well under way. For several weeks the weather had been extremely hot and I was enjoying a cool, midnight stroll on the hilltop walk in front of Gifford, Memorial Chapel and Hepburn. Tall trees by Gifford swayed gently in a breeze laden with the fragrance of the Green Mountain forests. Through a veil of dark leaves a full moon made a picture reminiscent of a Japanese painting. In the lonely silence it was hard to realize that approximately a thousand students were in residence. But the golden squares of light of the dormitories indicated that, as usual, many of them were hard at work preparing their assignments for the morning.

I found myself thinking that whatever the varied motives were which had brought these students to Middlebury, all of them must have experienced the charm of language study. It was devotion to this study for its cultural rather than for its utilitarian values which created the friendly intellectual atmosphere of the Middlebury Summer Language Schools.

As everybody connected with education knows, the war greatly stimulated language studies in this country. The success of the intensive, oral methods of teaching achieved by the army inspired adoption of similar though modified methods in many universities. However, there are those who feel that the emphasis on language skills has tended to obscure the deeper cultural values of language study.

This was in my mind when I was preparing a television program, some time ago, on the subject of foreign language studies in the liberal arts curriculum. A definition of culture which I found in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary—"the enlightenment and refinement of the taste acquired by intellectual and aesthetic training"—proved very useful, for by its implications the cultural eminence of foreign language studies was clear.

Since the intellectual and aesthetic values of these studies are essentially subjective, illuminating understanding in this area can only be attained by personal reflection, far from the noise of pedagogical polemics. I trust that this will sufficiently justify the large place given here to personal experience.

Although French language and literature have been my main field, I confess—and this sometimes encourages my students—that French was one of my weaker subjects in high school. It is to Latin that I owe my first joy in language studies. My teacher was a gentleman of “the old school” and, although he lacked the streamlined efficiency so much in demand today, he nevertheless instilled in many of us a lasting love for classical Latin. At that time, under the romantic spell cast by the first book of the *Aeneid*, I learned by heart Lord Tennyson’s beautiful poem to Virgil. It has glowed in my memory and been a constant inspiration to me ever since. Tennyson’s love for Virgil, expressed in the final stanza:

I salute thee, Mantovano,
I who loved thee since my day began,
Wielder of the stateliest measure
Ever molded by the lips of man

is a sentiment which every literary person will understand. In it love of noble language has become love of a noble human being who lived two thousand years ago.

During my first year as a student at the University of Paris, browsing one day in the bookshops of the Boulevard St. Michel, I came upon a series of varied colored pamphlets entitled *Le Latin par la Joie—Les Sept Langues Enseignées en Même Temps*. My budding polygot interest was immediately awakened and I purchased the 12 pamphlets available of a promised thirty. The author, Charles Pagot, had managed to enlist an imposing number of patrons whose help was probably limited to permission to use their names. At any rate, he devoted a page or more of each pamphlet to an appeal for subscriptions. Eventually 22 pamphlets appeared. Whether the series was ever completed I cannot say.

What most impressed me was the evangelical enthusiasm of this learned philologist. Each lesson was introduced with a lyrical rapture, with a promise of joys to be that the advertising agent of a tourist bureau might well have envied. Such sen-

tences as "And now we are about to enter the enchanted garden of the Greek declensions" were profusely strewn in the reader's path.

Unfortunately as every language student knows, there are certain unavoidably dry areas in language study which no outpouring of pedagogical eloquence can ever succeed in turning into an enchanted garden. Moreover, to teach seven languages at once to even the brightest European students can hardly be considered a realistic project.

Nevertheless, these pamphlets by Charles Pagot, containing many fascinating comparisons between various languages and written with loving devotion to the cause of linguistic learning, represent a refreshing departure in the field. Most significantly, they afford a glimpse of the joyous emotions which many linguistic scholars experience in their work but hide beneath diffident, professional dignity.

Recently when I was purchasing a Chinese-Russian dictionary, a lady clerk who has often helped me select books asked me why I was so interested in foreign languages. My spur-of-the-moment reply was that they are for me an escape from the prosaic. To read and speak a foreign language is to free one's mind from the implacably quotidian associations of one's mother tongue. This is especially true in the United States where democratic, commercial standardization inflicts its connotations upon the English language. Such arguments, I suggested, should partly explain why I had read Dreiser's "An American Tragedy" in Russian and Steinbeck's "The Grapes of Wrath" in Greek.

Goethe once said that the chief reason for learning foreign languages was that it gave one access to the literary masterpieces of different countries so that one could always remain on the heights. Unfortunately for the pretensions of some enthusiasts who still use this argument, its validity has been greatly impaired today (except for poetry) by the promptitude and universality of translation.

Aside from the availability or otherwise of translations, the reading of books in foreign languages is a unique intellectual pleasure. Of marked cultural significance moreover is the fact that this pleasure can inspire the reading of masterpieces whose austerity or tediousness might otherwise repel. It is a commonplace that great classics are alluded to much more often than

they are read. Editions in English translation of Homer, Virgil, Dante, Goethe, Hugo etc. continue to sell, but it is very doubtful whether those who buy them find them as interesting as they are supposed to be.

However, it might be said that the modern reader returns to the ancient Greek and Latin classics in an atmosphere freshened by two centuries of romanticism and realism. The old stories which by the end of the 18th century had become stale, now, in contrast with the complexity of modern literary works, exert a peculiar, nostalgic charm. If to their reading is added the fascination of the ancient language, dullness magically disappears.

Nothing could better assure the continued vitality of the ancient classics than renewed interest in the original fostered by bilingual texts. Curiously, the oral-auditive approach in language instruction (including use of tape and disc recordings) is significantly in harmony with the pedagogical arguments in favor of such texts.

To recommend that students use interlinear or opposite page bilingual texts for ancient or modern foreign authors still seems to be somewhat of a pedagogical heresy. However this was not always the case. In the opening pages of his editions of the Greek and Latin classics in interlinear translation, Charles Desilver quotes such outstanding scholars as John Milton and John Locke in support of this natural, time-saving way of learning foreign languages.¹

There is much to be said for reading, in the elementary stages, books previously read in another language. This pleasant, effective procedure was almost forced upon me when I was learning modern Greek. I found that Greek novels obtainable in New York City were scarce, and the few which I purchased proved to be very difficult. On the other hand I was surprised and delighted to find that I could read with comparative ease Greek translations of novels by Balzac, Maupassant, Hugo etc. Although I would hesitate to advocate in a college French class the reading in French of well-known American and English novels, I sometimes think that such an unorthodox procedure might yield interesting, fruitful results.

¹ Charles Desilver, Philadelphia, 1864. These texts are now published by McKay and Co., Philadelphia.

It is related that Lord Macaulay read the Bible in a different language on each of his long voyages to and from India. In this way he acquired a working knowledge of 40 languages—the same number, incidentally, as that admitted to by Professor Mario Pei in a recent *Holiday* magazine article.

That the Bible in its many translations provides excellent reading material for students of foreign languages seems to be rather overlooked today. Perhaps this is partly due to the increased secularization of education. But even those unfamiliar with its stories will find a foreign version relatively simple reading. Thanks to the repetitive style the same words and phrases occur again and again, literally teaching themselves to the reader. Bilingual New Testaments and Bibles can be obtained in many languages from the American Bible Society.

Most linguists agree that for the building of vocabulary in the early stages of learning a language, nothing takes the place of abundant reading of easy material. Unfortunately, elementary reading texts usually lack the intellectual stimulus without which mature, educated persons are soon bored. Since boredom is the worst blight in intellectual activity, it must be avoided at all costs—or, let us say, at nearly all costs, since aesthetic and moral considerations condemn trash and pornography.

Ideally, careful study of a foreign text will entail three readings. The first will be a fairly rapid reading without use of the dictionary; the second a close study of the text in which every word not fully understood will be looked up; the third, a reading at a speed about that of reading in one's mother tongue.

Quite apart from literary considerations, linguistically it is the first reading which provides the greatest challenge and which represents the most significant cultural experience. The reader's memory and imagination are here brought into full play, for he must recognize many words previously met with in other connotations or simply forgotten. Also with the aid of the context, the apparent similarity of the word to a word he knows, etc., he must guess the meaning of many new words. This entails an intellectual exploration which provides much of the pleasure of learning a language. It is a game which the intelligent but perhaps not very "bookish" student will greatly enjoy and in which he will often do exceedingly well.

Since most authors have their own particular style and vocabulary, the reader will usually find that after the first 20 or 30 pages the going becomes much easier. He may begin a book, as it were, in a dark, heavily wooded area and finally, through the thinning forest, emerge on to a sunny plain.

One philosophical theory of beauty relates it to the physiological phenomenon of stress and relaxation. Applied to reading in a foreign language this theory can perhaps be illustrated in the following manner. A reader is battling for light amid the darkness. Suddenly the meaning of a passage becomes clear. Should it express an interesting idea or consist of a beautiful description, its revelation will be enhanced by the feeling of easy, smooth going which has followed the stress of concentration. Since the revelation is in a foreign language, it will have an added exotic charm.

The linguist as an aesthete continually moves in a world similar to that of poets like Baudelaire, Rimbaud and Mallarmé for whom words were poetic only in so far as they seemed new, strange and mystically suggestive. Mallarmé, for instance, strove to use words obscurely in order to foster and protect their exotic suggestiveness. When one is learning a new language, the unfamiliarity of the words lends a poetic suggestiveness to their visual and tonal qualities which affords a pleasure not unlike that of reading modern, symbolist poetry. Indeed this fact explains to a significant extent the aesthetic lure of polyglottism.

Let us consider the first two stanzas of Baudelaire's sonnet *Correspondances*:

La nature est un temple où de vivants piliers
Laissent parfois sortir de confuses paroles;
L'homme y passe à travers une forêt de symboles
Qui l'observent avec des regards familiers.
Comme de longs échos qui de loin se confondent
Dans une ténébreuse et profonde unité,
Vaste comme la nuit et comme la clarté
Les parfums, les couleurs et les sons se répondent.

In a very real sense an American learning French "passes through a forest of symbols which observe him with familiar glances." As he reads or listens to French, many words will seem strangely familiar, although their precise meaning may

escape him at the time. But subsequently these same words may suddenly become clear and he may wonder why he did not understand the "confuses paroles" the first time. Many of these words are the words of his own language dressed in foreign clothing. If he is learning a language like Chinese the "symbols" will not look at him with the same familiarity. His task of recognition will be truly similar to that of the explorer. And yet since there is profound unity in nature, it will not be long before he recognizes that the strange sounds and ideographs of Chinese are potentially familiar as symbols of things and ideas which he knows. It is thus that the study of foreign languages answers the profound nostalgia of the human soul for unity in diversity.

In the line:

Les parfums, les couleurs et les sons se répondent,
Baudelaire evokes the phenomena of the interplay of the senses, phenomena always present in the minds of those who discuss the relationship between the various arts. In poetry the realization of the synaesthetic value of words has exerted an incalculable influence. The *word* having ceased to be primarily a logical symbol has become a veritable synaesthesia: that is, its sense evocativeness (oral and audio-visual) has been seen as susceptible of great expansion. Thus the sound and appearance of French vowels suggested colors to Rimbaud.

In the untranslatable soul of French words, in their music, their written or printed contours, in the gestures by which they are accompanied when spoken, a sensitive foreigner can divine an almost limitless sensuous and spiritual background.

One of the first expressions which a student of French may hear from the lips of an enthusiastic native teacher is "la douce France," or "la douce langue française." As he becomes further acquainted with the language, and if he visits France, the sweet music of those words will evoke for him the general character of France and French civilization. In particular, their softness may suggest to him the pastoral beauty of the Loire valley and its charming Renaissance châteaux. In that region, in which incidentally the purest, most musical French is spoken, the dominant color tones are soft green and blue. Soft blue in particular seems to be the most characteristic French color.

I have sometimes imagined that the light, pastoral blue of the French *poilu's* uniform in contrast with the gray-green (*Feldgrau*) of the German soldier's uniform suggests the fundamental differences between France and Germany. Though such thoughts may be difficult to substantiate I am convinced that they are an important element in one's feeling for a language.

One reason children usually learn languages easily is that they are good mimics. An older person must have some of the qualities of an actor if he is to acquire a genuine feeling for a foreign language. Knowledge of grammar and phonetics is not enough. Gestures and intonation must be intimately copied. Many students of foreign languages are notably unable to do this and no matter how successful they may be in their language studies they will never acquire genuine feeling for a foreign language.

It has been said that each foreign language learned is a "life" added to one's experience. Like many hyperbolical statements this contains a grain of truth. I have found that with each foreign language studied I acquired a feeling of sympathetic intimacy with the people long before I had the opportunity of traveling in their country. Though I am hoping one day to travel in Russia and China, I already have an instinctive feeling of good will toward Russians and Chinese which transcends international misunderstandings and animosities. This sentiment moreover has little to do with admiration for Russian and Chinese literature but springs directly from contact with these languages. Of the many benefits of foreign language studies, I consider this truly spiritual sentiment by far the most precious.

Part of the pleasure of reading in foreign languages is due to the exotic suggestion of their printed or written forms. Curiously, some languages seem to be visually more interesting or beautiful than others. A comparison of Russian and Polish provides a good illustration of this point. For an American the appearance of Russian with its Cyrillic alphabet is likely to be aesthetically interesting, even beautiful. Polish, which on the other hand is printed in the Roman alphabet, presents distressingly ugly bunches of redundant and well-nigh unpronounceable consonants. Italian, in spite of its lush musicality, somehow seems less pleasing to the eye than Spanish. I believe this is due to Italian's poverty of consonant endings which re-

sult in its open, "unfinished" appearance, and to its superabundance of abbreviations which have an effect of fragmentation in the printed line. The Greek printed word has a delicate grace intimately in harmony with the genius of Greek civilization whereas Latin words, by their stately solidity, suggest characteristics associated with Imperial Rome.

In European languages the written or printed word is a more or less accurate transcription of the sound. Thus vocal tone and printed image have a reciprocal, complementary function the perception of which provides much of the aesthetic pleasure of reading these languages. In the case of Oriental languages like Chinese and Japanese things are quite different. The Chinese ideograph, as the name indicates, speaks directly through the eye to the mind in a manner which an occidental can hardly conceive. As R. P. Blackmur very nicely puts it, the Chinese words are "voiceless pictures drawn with elegance and style: what we would call speaking likenesses when we do not call them ideographs."² For the purposes of the spoken language, sounds are associated with these voiceless pictures but they vary greatly according to the particular dialect. Since there are approximately 40,000 ideographs (actually about 6,000 are currently used) and only 4 or 5 hundred sounds (a number considerably extended by the use of different tones), the latter are applied to many ideographs and thus function as their humble, anonymous servants.

My own initiation in Chinese consisted of a short-lived honeymoon with its fascinating but alas comparatively few pictorially understandable ideographs. I soon discovered that the "voiceless pictures drawn with elegance and style" are mostly like cubist drawings whose meaning is tantalizingly obscure.

The peculiar, native beauty of the written and printed word has already been sacrificed in many countries. Turkey, for instance, in 1925 replaced its fascinating, archaic script for the more practical Roman alphabet. Japan in moving toward greater simplicity is progressively limiting the use of Chinese ideographs and at the same time doing away with many traditional, polite forms of speech. In China, Mao Tse-Tung is reportedly backing the movement for romanization of the script,

² "The Language of Silence," *The Sewanee Review*; Summer 1955.

book editors are already printing but half of many a complicated ideograph.

If the nations of the world finally take the practical, progressive step of adopting a world language, it is to be hoped that the native languages will not be allowed to die. From the aesthetic point of view it is encouraging to note the contemporary resurgence of the will to preserve national identity in all spheres of life.

It sometimes seems to be forgotten that language is not only the instrument but also the creator of culture. Since this is the case, persons of culture should feel it their duty, *noblesse oblige*, to avoid habitual use of incorrect, uncouth language. For obvious reasons this is particularly true in the United States. In old, less democratic European countries there still exists a marked difference between the language of the cultured class and that of the masses. In Greece for example the language of highly educated people is, to a considerable extent, influenced by the purified, conservative form of the language (*ἡ καθαρεύουσα*). The value of the latter as a model of good usage can only be fully appreciated when one observes how the Greek language is mutilated in the popular vernacular (*ἡ δημοτική*).

There is no guarantee that the study of a foreign language will greatly improve a person's use of his mother tongue. However one thing is certain: Study of a foreign language does tend to make the student more conscious of grammar and the meaning of words. The role of Latin for instance as training in mental discipline is generally recognized. Among the modern world languages Russian is perhaps the only one which provides similar discipline, and I recall hearing a brilliant young scholar, by profession a teacher of Latin, remark that he found the complexities of Russian absolutely fascinating. For this reason he preferred it to the other important modern languages.

Of recent years there has been a good deal of debate in educational publications as to the ability of American students to learn foreign languages. In this connection I found interesting the opinion of a Russian who is a professor in an American university. He was continually surprised, he said, by the fine linguistic performance of many American students of non-Russian extraction. However he did admit that his contacts had

been mostly with interested students who were following an intensive program.

There are many obvious reasons why Americans have earned the reputation of being poor linguists. One reason, not sufficiently recognized, is historical and psychological. Since in this great melting pot of races and nationalities the inability to speak English marked a person as a newcomer and, in the eyes of many as an intruder, it tended to cast upon him a social stigma. This fostered an ignorant, suspicious and snobbish attitude toward foreigners and foreign languages which, in spite of the passage of time and the widening of educational opportunity, still lingers.

The desire to be considered a hundred per cent American is even more noticeable among the children of immigrants than among their parents. I am forever encountering students who confess they have no interest in learning the language spoken at home by their father and mother. Sometimes the parents try to teach them, sometimes they prefer their children to speak only English. Although a good many immigrants speak chiefly the dialect of a small region, even they can often help their children by giving them a feeling for the language. The failure of these young people to seize the opportunity of learning a foreign language at home represents a regrettable educational waste.

In view of the position of world leadership held by this country, the importance of foreign language studies is clearly indicated. For the long-range welfare of the nation and of western civilization itself it is important, above all, that the cultural and spiritual values of foreign language study be recognized and cherished.

PROFESSORS AND THE IMPENDING CRISIS

ELEANOR O. MILLER

PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY, ILLINOIS COLLEGE

THE most cloistered inhabitant of the most remote ivory tower is now aware that a deluge of students is on its way. Statistical warnings have been posted for some years but overflowing classrooms now demand that "something must be done."

Additional housing, classrooms, laboratories concern everyone. Revisions of schedules to permit better use of present facilities are already under way. Possible cooperation between institutions is tentatively explored. Important as all of these preparations may be, they alone do not constitute a college. Mark Hopkins and his log remain a symbol of the effective college relationship but if Mark sits alone on his end of the log today he cannot balance the weight of incoming students on the other end. Where can we obtain faculty members to teach these students in the new classrooms under construction? How can we use available faculty members to better advantage?

The liberal arts colleges are calling on industry to help keep alive their traditional approach to education. Their presidents point out the advantages of the liberal arts in preparing leaders for business and industry. The evidence they present is quite convincing and industry has already shown some interest and given some support. But in the crisis ahead we must guard against losing those very qualities we have been most careful to emphasize. It is important that we keep the trust we have gained and preserve what is most worth-while in liberal arts education. What is most worth-while? In the years ahead even the colleges face inevitable changes. How can the changes be controlled so that the essential elements remain? And what are those essential elements?

Many a college president has had to choose between putting money into new or improved buildings, increased endowment, enlarged student facilities, administrative expense or faculty salaries. We face inevitable problems of trying to coordinate the ideals of Phi Beta Kappa, the demands of professional organiza-

tions and the traditions of various churches with our financial limitations and appeals to prospective donors. How these elements are woven together rests primarily with the college president, backed by his board of trustees. But the college professor has a stake in the sturdiness and value of the resulting fabric. All of us, as teachers of our separate disciplines and representatives of our personal value systems, are convinced that some parts of the college fabric are more important than other parts but we do not always agree on the pattern and we are not always aware of the warp and woof of the whole texture.

More than a quarter of a century of college teaching lies back of my belief that never before have we so much needed to do more than merely "carry on." Our bland assumptions that what has been, will be, have never been so invalid. To get out of our thinking ruts, to deal with the situation creatively, will do more than help solve it and assure us of a place in it. It can likewise do for higher education what has not been done for public education. It can even do more for higher education than all modern personnel practices have done for business. For we are professional people who should be proud of our profession and convinced of our basic worth. But we are not self-employed as are members of certain other professions. We are working in institutions established under the direction of boards of trustees and administrative officers. Our professional concerns are not their concerns and their concerns are our business only to a limited extent. But together we can find methods of using faculties more effectively. This is a crisis for all of us, a problem, a concern—but it is also a challenge.

Although much ink has been spread on the attempt to define and describe a liberal arts education, not much has been devoted to the college professor himself. If we are faced with the necessity for attracting new people it seems time that we turn the spotlight on the faculty so that prospective recruits can see the men and women they might join. One businessman once called a college faculty "a queer kettle of fish." We have often been labelled "prima donnas." At one time we had great prestige; today our more successful students feel sorry for us. Presidents and trustees sometimes claim they have a "good faculty" but no one knows just what they mean. Various associations rate fac-

ulties on detailed measures of academic achievement but this statistical summary has its limitations.

Speaking before The North Central Association, Commissioner Brownell mentioned the shortage of teachers which he called "grievous" and "more acute even than that of facilities." "Today," he said, "our elementary schools need 72,000 more teachers. Tomorrow our high schools and colleges will face parallel needs. He emphasizes the fact that "we can buy classrooms, but we cannot buy competent, devoted and well-prepared instructors for our children and youth."*

Perhaps if we study and understand the college professor and why he teaches, we may discover some means for attracting others like him. Industry and government can write job analyses for even high-level jobs. Job analyses of college teaching are limited to the number of courses taught for the number of hours per week. Qualifications are indicated by degrees and years of experience. Prestige may be obtained in more ways than we can ever list. Students point to many different kinds of teaching and teachers as "good." Student advisers often recommend selecting courses on the basis of the teacher rather than the content. Whereas government and industrial job analyses are prepared for the jobs to be filled, the personal qualities of a college professor are said to determine his worth to the institution. If we are to study the faculty problem of present and future years it appears, therefore, that we must classify persons rather than jobs.

There seem to be at least three kinds of professors. Perhaps some belong to more than one group and some can be classed in none of the three. But as we examine each of these groups we may also understand its relation to the college as a whole. We may even be able to suggest new sources for recruiting additional faculty members.

The first kind of professor considers himself the representative on the campus of his particular discipline. He attends regional and professional meetings and may do what ever research and writing his schedule permits. He knows his subject thoroughly and knows how to teach it. He could teach quite as well in one

* Samuel Miller Brownell, "Professional Leadership in Education," *The North Central Association Quarterly*, January 1955, pp. 284-289.

good college as in another. Most professors of this kind gravitate to the universities but some of them prefer the colleges, particularly those with high academic standards. We need to keep as many as possible of these professors in the colleges and to attract others, but they need more than better salaries alone. They need relief from some of the incidental, less professional aspects of teaching. They need secretarial help, adequate janitor service, relief from dull committee work. Young graduate students and even seniors could be taught to help these professors with some of the minutiae of teaching: testing, papers, attendance taking, conferences, library work, etc. Much more of this help is available in the universities, but more could be made available in the colleges. These student assistants under such a plan might themselves be attracted to college teaching.

Such professors as this might share their special knowledge and skills between two or three nearby colleges. Why should not the college professor pilot his own plane or take to the helicopter as well as his friend in industry? Perhaps no small college campus could afford a professor with such a speciality as Russian history or statistical analysis or modern art. But two or three campuses might profit from a mutual arrangement. The hard work of keeping up with all the divisions of one subject such as psychology or sociology could be lessened considerably by two professors who divided the work on two campuses. Even the need for an additional part-time professor in such fields could be obtained in this way. Such measures in themselves might attract good teachers to the colleges as well as the universities and keep them as professors instead of losing them to business. We have scarcely touched the possibilities of using this kind of teacher on television. Through this and other more general means, such teachers may help to create more colleges with national as well as local reputations and make them more deserving of industrial and foundation support on a national or regional scale.

Not all professors are of this kind nor do we want them to be. Many of them would consider such suggestions with dismay and view them as high-pressure techniques rather than dignified college relationships. To this second kind of professor the particular college in which he teaches is the focus of his academic

thinking. He becomes identified with this college as something bigger and better than himself. Many such identifications took place in the days of pioneer isolation but some professors desire such isolation even today in spite of changing transportation and communication possibilities. Such a professor endears himself to people of the community and to alumni and, in a church-related college, to his particular denomination. He is a leader for all of them and he enjoys his position of leadership. The college gives him "cause" to which he can devote himself and there is no questioning his loyalty to this cause. He helps to bring support to the college from local industry and devoted alumni. Such professors tend to revere traditions and might prevent a college from desirable growth and change. But when balanced by professors in our first group, the two kinds of interests will supplement each other.

Additions to this second group of professors might be found in the community itself. On a part-time basis many capable women should be available as instructors. Alumni might give service as well as support. The churches might direct their own young people toward service to their colleges. It is the possibility of service and local fellowship which must be stressed to secure professors for this group.

The third group of professors may be competent teachers and may be loyal to a particular college, but the principal attraction they find in college teaching is the good life it provides. If salary conditions could be improved, the only block toward recruiting potential teachers of this kind would be removed. For they find that in a world stirred up with ambition, the peaceful life on a small college campus can be very attractive. They are less tense themselves than their colleagues in the first two groups and they can make college life really delightful with their love of music and art and simple amusements. The pleasures and rewards of such a life have not been publicized nearly enough. Most people know about the movie professor, the sentimental Mr. Chips, or the long-haired, absent-minded intellectual. They know all too little about happy faculty families.

Retired professors, from the same or other colleges, could add to this group, especially in pleasant climates. Even retired businessmen could fit into a college life for the several years of active life left to them.

The president and dean of any college will determine the proportions of these three groups on any college campus. We need them all and when they work together in a democratic way the whole campus profits. Programs whereby these teachers are brought into and made a part of a college faculty will become more and more important. Such a program as the Hunter College Ford Seminar in College Teaching* might serve as a pilot study for other colleges and universities. Summer programs in many institutions could be directed toward this end. This is not a proposal for "Education" courses for prospective college teachers, but it is a suggestion that new teachers, young and old, need more than good will and trial-and-error.

Business and industry have adopted principles of "automation" to save their businesses in an era of too few workers for available jobs. There may be ways in which such methods will be of service in the business side of college operation. But the teaching side has few such opportunities. We all see great values in such academic practices as we have already accepted. But minds not bound to what-has-been can tease out the necessary qualities of the academic profession until we know what we have, and what we want, preserving the human values while serving human needs.

* Ruth H. Weintraub and John S. Diekhoff, "A Program of Faculty In-Service Training," *The Journal of Higher Education*, October 1955, pp. 343-349.

THE BUFFALO PROGRAM IN AMERICAN STUDIES

LYLE GLAZIER

CHAIRMAN OF AMERICAN STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO

PROGRAMS in American Studies have become so common that only the excuse of a novel plan or of more than ordinary success warrants the publication of a description of another one. The program at the University of Buffalo, which since its adoption in 1952 has grown to be seventh among 20 possible major offerings in the College of Arts and Sciences, may possibly justify description for both reasons.

The Buffalo program is highly eclectic and flexible, appealing to students both for its breadth and its opportunities for individual planning. At the same time, its courses provide the respectable and vigorous discipline of tested traditional courses, since each department controls and staffs its courses which are made use of by American Studies. In four years the program has grown until it now has 30 majors, 18 juniors and 12 seniors. It is the kind of program which with good will and cooperation could be adopted by almost any liberal arts college, small or large, in the United States. Best of all, as an attraction for budget-wary administrators, it has cost the college almost nothing beyond the normal expenditures for the departments whose courses have been drawn upon.

There are apparently two general sorts of American Studies programs. One is the highly organized collection of special courses, usually of a broad, general-education nature, all fitting together to create a firmly-conceived pattern of American life as seen from a special point of view. The second is the eclectic offering of selections from the wide variety of courses in American civilization already offered by the college. The advantage of the first kind is that it is firmly organized and can be rigorously controlled; its chief drawback is that in spite of the breadth of individual courses, its total outlook may be narrow, for its intellectual base is the assumption that American civilization can be contained within a set group of courses. The advantage of the second kind is that it has the richness and variety and integrity of

the examination of American culture from many points of view and under the supervision of many specialists, none of whom has allowed himself to be compromised in any way by the desire to impart a single and integrated view of the complex system of phenomena and values making up America. Its disadvantage is that it may become so loose and unintegrated as to sacrifice unity altogether.

The Buffalo program is the second kind. In fact, if it had not been, it would not have come into existence at all. Not only did the college have no funds for creating the curriculum needed for the closely-knit program of special courses, but a faculty as autonomous as ours would undoubtedly have refused to adopt such a program even if funds had been available, having too little trust in the omniscience of any director or committee empowered with the task of charting a single meaningful course through American civilization. The program is chiefly advisory; in fact, it would have been possible for a student to have majored in American Studies under a different name and under slightly different circumstances before the program was officially approved, for the program simply groups all the courses in various aspects of American civilization offered by many departments, and makes them available as a potential source for building an individualized, coordinated program of study.

At Buffalo, a common ground for all American Studies majors is provided by four required courses and by tutorial seminars taken during the junior and senior years. The four basic courses—*Survey of American Literature*, *New Points of View in American History*, *American Philosophy*, and *American Social and Intellectual History*—can be duplicated on almost any campus in the nation. The tutorial seminars are part of the Buffalo plan by which every student during his last two years is enrolled in a small class for reading and discussing under guidance problems in his major field, whatever the field may be. The American Studies tutorial seminars are new, but the cost is negligible, for the students would be enrolled somewhere else if not in American Studies. At a college which does not provide Buffalo's tutorial program, the function of these seminars could be supplied by classes in problems of American life, organized along lines such as those suggested by the Amherst *Problems in American Civilization*.

There are two plans for American Studies at Buffalo.

Plan I is heavily indebted to the plan for the undergraduate program at the University of Minnesota. Under *Plan I* the student's courses are distributed nearly equally over four departments, two of which must be American history and American literature. The third and fourth departments may be selected by each student from among the large number of departments which offer fairly heavy concentrations in American civilization. Among these departments are anthropology, drama and speech, economics, education, geology, geography, government, psychology, philosophy, the sciences and sociology. The comprehensive examination for *Plan I* is a six-hour interdepartmental written examination on problems in American civilization. The diploma designates the major department as American Studies.

Plan II is more original, but its counterpart can doubtless be found elsewhere. It is for the student who desires a comparatively heavy concentration in one of the departments which has a large offering in American civilization. It is in effect a conventional departmental major (somewhat modified in the number of hours of credits) in an American Studies department, supplemented by at least 27 hours of credit distributed over at least three other American Studies departments. Nine of the 27 hours are to be obtained in each of two departments and at least six credits in a third.

During his first two years at the University the student under *Plan II* will complete basic courses in American Studies and in the department of his heaviest concentration. In the junior and senior years he will enroll for advanced courses in his chosen department and in American Studies, and he will also take tutorial work. If he chooses to major in English and American Studies, which is virtually a major in American literature, he will take the American Studies tutorial seminar in English and American literature (American Studies Tutorial, *Plan II*). If his department of heaviest concentration is some other department than the English department, he may choose among several tutorial plans: (1) he may take both junior and senior tutorial in the department of concentration, (2) he may take both junior and senior tutorial in the American Studies Tutorial *Plan I*, (3) he may take one year each in the department of concentration and

in American Studies or (4) he may with special permission take both the departmental seminar and the American Studies seminar at the same time.

For Plan II, the distribution of courses between the major department and the related departments in American Studies is arranged by consultation with the head of the major department and the Chairman of American Studies.

The Plan II comprehensive examination consists of the first half of the interdepartmental American Studies written examination—Plan I, plus half of the comprehensive examination in the department of concentration. For the major in English and American Studies, the second half of the examination is in English and American literature. The diploma for Plan II designates the major as a joint major in the key department and in American Studies (e.g., history and American Studies, English and American Studies, philosophy and American Studies, etc.).

There is no new department. The Chairman of American Studies is a member of the English department. For advising students and administering the program he is allowed two hours credit (one sixth of his load). The staff is made up of other part-time American literature teachers and less formally, of co-operating members of other departments who lend their assistance in making out and administering the written and oral comprehensive examinations.

At the time the program was originated, the English department had already begun to enlarge its offerings in American literature in the direction of giving courses which provide a literary background for social and historical movements. In the past few years, four such courses have been introduced—*The Immigrant in American Literature*, *Literature of American Democracy*, *The Significance of the Frontier in American Literature* and *American Borrowings from Other Literatures*.

Although there is an expense here of several new courses, they would have been needed anyway, for the postwar interest in American literature had made itself felt before the American Studies program was created. There are now six sections of the two-semester *Survey of American Literature*. Such a base furnishes a considerable demand for advanced courses, a demand which would have been satisfied with or without American Studies.

Outside the English department only one new course has been expressly introduced for American Studies—a popular course in *American Film*, given by the department of drama and speech. Courses are needed in American art, American music, and a general science course for the non-science major.

One of the agreeable features of the Buffalo program is the evidence it furnishes of good will between departments. The departments of English, history, and philosophy have cooperated especially cordially in creating and maintaining the program. Other departments have been equally friendly. The chief reason for an absence of friction may well be the organization of the program in such a way as not to interfere with any department's full control over its courses.

So far as most departments are concerned their contact with American Studies is limited to their providing certain courses which are approved for the program. An approved course is acceptable for the interdepartmental major in Plan I or for the 27 hours' credit in American Studies required outside the major department in Plan II. In such departments as English, geology, geography, government, history and philosophy, an approved course deals directly with some aspect of American civilization (e.g., *American Philosophy*, *American Constitutional Development*, *History of American Foreign Relations*). In other departments, such as drama and speech, economics, education, psychology and sociology, they may be courses which deal with ideas or skills common to all cultures, but which, because they are taught in the context of American society, use illustrative material from American life, and thus lend themselves indirectly to a study of America (e.g., *Abnormal Psychology*, *Social Interaction*, *Professional Unit in Education*).

Besides its function as a major program leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, American Studies can be used informally to plan a coordinated program in American civilization outside the student's major department. The core of such a program is made up of the four courses required of all American Studies majors. This program does not lead to the comprehensive examination in American Studies, nor is American Studies considered officially as a joint department of concentration.

WESTERN COLLEGE SUMMER SEMINARS ABROAD

HERRICK B. YOUNG

PRESIDENT, WESTERN COLLEGE FOR WOMEN

ONE of the unique features of the international emphasis at Western College for Women is the use of the summer travel seminar as the intermediate step in learning about various parts of the world. Prior to the seminar comes area study, and following it is supervised follow-up study in the student's major field.

Each year at Western College for Women a different geographic area is studied. Visiting area-specialists offer background courses on the part of the world they are from. Two years ago two visiting Danish professors gave courses on the history and the contemporary problems of Europe. Last year the concentration was on Latin America with Miss Angelica Mendoza, Ph.D. of the Argentine as the visiting professor. This year Dr. Safwat of the University of Alexandria in Egypt is the visiting professor on the Middle East. Next year the concentration will be on the Far East, with the visiting professor from that region followed by a summer seminar trip to that area.

Students are encouraged to take these area courses during their junior year. Following this they become eligible to visit the area that they have studied during the previous nine months. For instance during the month of July 1955, 32 students, faculty and alumae of Western College traveled from Miami to Peru where they spent 12 days. Then they flew across Lake Titicaca, stopping at La Paz and landing in Chile, where they spent 10 more days. After an overnight stop in Buenos Aires they visited Santos, Sao Paulo and Rio to get some idea of the enormous land of Brazil. Flying north across the mouth of the Amazon, where they stopped at Belem, their next port of call was at Caracas in Venezuela. Following a week end there, the seminar returned to Miami by way of several of the Caribbean islands.

The third step, following background study under a visiting scholar and the summer trip to the area, is for the student to carry on further study, utilizing seminar observations. For instance students who did the background study last year and

who visited Latin America during the summer are now doing their senior research projects with more than secondary sources on which to base them. One of the students who is majoring in Education spent a profitable afternoon in the high Andes visiting the schools for Indians which form part of a basic education project under Point Four. In Chile the entire seminar group was housed at the Instituto Pedagógico which is a part of the University of Chile. It afforded a wonderful opportunity to get acquainted with the university system of Chile. Another one of the students who is majoring in Economics spent a profitable two days in visiting the Kennecott Copper Mines at Sewell, Chile, and visited the coffee exchange in Santos. Others carried out different projects which had been approved by their major professors before departing on the trip.

The summer seminar is not tourism nor does Western College feel that academic credit should be given for participation in it. Nor is it comparable to the "junior-year-abroad" type of program which is a more extended stay in a single country. It is also important to recognize that the Western College seminars are not a hop-skip-and-jump tour from country to country. An effort is made to stay long enough in some one country in the particular area to feel really at home. For instance the first twelve days of the Latin American seminar were spent in Peru.

Western College feels that the summer seminar abroad is a means of enriching instruction just as the use of reference books for the library is a means of enriching the learning process.

One of the features of the summer-seminar visit to Latin America was the opportunity it gave to observe the impact of American industry on underdeveloped countries. Prior to the departure of the seminar, arrangements had been made in this country with Proctor and Gamble, W. R. Grace Company, Kennecott Copper, Armco Steel and Creole Petroleum to see something of their operations in the different countries visited.

The W. R. Grace Company arranged to have a bus pick up the entire group at the *pension* in Lima early one morning. We were driven 70 kilometers north to Paramanga which is a very interesting sugar-cane plantation employing 2,000 workmen. There, after the cane is grown and harvested, it is fed into a sugar mill. The granulated sugar is packaged in bags made from

paper which is manufactured from pulp left from the sugar cane. A third utilization of the pulp is to manufacture alcohol. Mr. Birdseye, the inventor of frozen foods, was at the Paramanga plantation as consultant to the W. R. Grace people, helping them figure out still additional processes to use. The seminar group was taken through these various plants, saw the school and health program carried on by the W. R. Grace Company for their employees, was entertained at lunch with opportunity for informal discussion with the staff and came away with an entirely new understanding of Peru and the way a North American company works there.

In Caracas, Proctor and Gamble had arranged to have the entire seminar visit the radio station where a sample television broadcast of a "soap opera" was put on for the group. There was an opportunity for questions about opinion surveys that were being made and ways in which it was discovered that the manufactured article was meeting the taste of the customer. The seminar was then entertained at a buffet supper at the Tamanaco Hotel and heard from the Proctor and Gamble sales manager, labor relations specialist and others. Creole Petroleum presented a special program on the oil economy of Venezuela.

However as the seminar visits country after country, in addition to observing the impact of American industry on the country, an effort is made to understand the history and cultural background of the people as well as some of the contemporary problems. In Santiago, Chile, for instance the university women of that city presented a most interesting program in which a Chilean woman architect, a Chilean woman doctor, a Chilean woman social worker, among others, told why they had gone into the particular profession in Chile, what their training had been and what the job opportunities were for other women in their particular professional fields.

The cultural attachés of the American embassies were very helpful. In Santiago, Chile, Miss Ruth Lakeway gave a vocal recital at the bi-national institute. In Lima and Rio receptions were given in honor of the seminar by the cultural staff. In Valparaiso President Young Spoke on "Trends in North American Higher Education" at the Instituto Chileno-Norte Americano.

The presence on the faculty of Western College for Women of competent scholars from many different cultural backgrounds adds to the international emphasis. There also are students of many different nationalities in the student body. This year of Middle East emphasis finds students from Afghanistan, Iran, Pakistan and Turkey, and also from Greece, sharing their cultural outlook at the student-to-student level and preparing the seminar for what they may expect this summer.

On the Latin American travel seminar, of the 10 faculty members who made the trip, one was the visiting professor of education from the Philippines. Dr. Pedro Rio is on leave from Silliman University where he is Dean of the College of Education and is on the Western College faculty for the year. He arranged to arrive from the Philippines in time to make the trip around Latin America with the seminar group. This added a great deal to the experience of the entire group.

Thanks to a subsidy from a foundation especially interested in South America, it was possible for the students to make the trip at moderate expense which brought it within the range of all as to cost. During the journey the group did not stay at the best hotels. On the other hand *pensions* and student hostels were utilized with the result that the seminar came to know the people in the various countries much better than tourists who go from one de luxe hostelry to another. In Chile the seminar was the guest of the University in the dormitories of the Instituto Pedagógico.

The summer seminar in 1956 will be in the Middle East. The group will go from New York to Madrid, where there will be an initial stop to observe the cultural bridge between the Middle East and the New World. What is known as Moorish culture in Spain is found in the New World and is very reminiscent of the Middle East. Then there will be a stop in North Africa before a longer visit to Egypt, centering in Cairo. From there the seminar will fly to Beirut. Baghdad and Teheran will be visited as a side trip from Beirut, so that it will be possible for some of the group to spend more time on the Mediterranean while others make the more expensive journey into the Land of the Medes and the Persians. The entire group will visit Damascus, Amman, Jerusalem and Tel Aviv, flying from there to Turkey, Greece and Rome before returning to New York.

Contemporary political and educational leaders will be interviewed in the Arab lands, Iran and Israel. Of equal interest should be the opportunity to observe the impact of American industry on these ancient and underdeveloped lands. Socony Mobil Oil Company has invited the seminar to go from Beirut to Sidon for a day's trip to see the end of the pipeline and the refinery there. In Cairo the seminar will stay at the Hill Hostel of the American University of Cairo, and in Beirut at the American University there. Part of the group will make the side trip to Baghdad and Teheran, where the seminar has been invited to be the guests of the Imperial Court of Iran.

POLITICS IN PERSPECTIVE

DELL G. HITCHNER AND WILLIAM H. HARBOLD

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

THERE is an old saw still occasionally circulating to the effect that a political scientist is one who among politicians is considered a scientist and among scientists is considered a politician. This observation was probably intended to be facetious, we think, but as a matter of fact it is not entirely wide of the mark. As political scientists we would agree at least that we can scarcely avoid some kind of criticism in today's highly organized academic world, considering that the members of our profession are often most uncertain about the object as well as the objective of their study and even in a state of considerable disagreement over the significance of what they may learn.

Any casual observer taking even brief respite from his own specialty to look at ours might easily conclude that the study of politics today is in a state of considerable uncertainty. He could quickly discover among us sharply conflicting claims as to the appropriate objectives for the study of politics and the methods to approach it. He could find viewpoints ranging from an insistence that the political arena is a focal point for conflicting interest drives, which men are fascinated to observe but impotent to control, to the assertion that politics is essentially a field for the manipulation of human affairs within which man, by applying his intelligence and skill, may attain Utopia. He could witness intramural debates, long-standing but still continued without decision, over whether politics is an *art* or a *science*. He could readily wonder how it is that political *scientists* devote a considerable share of their time to investigating and teaching political *philosophy*. Certainly this interloper among us would not need to be greatly discerning to suspect that there are some serious inconsistencies here somewhere, and that some drastic rethinking of the entire discipline of political science might immediately be in order.

We are well aware that for us even to hint at the existence of such a situation must seem utterly damning; it sounds like an

unconscionable informing on one's honest and hard-working fellow practitioners, not to mention presenting an apparently far too generous Achilles' heel to one's academic critics. Is this not really a confession, such critics might say, that because political scientists have been unable to adopt a single agreed line of political analysis, they have really failed to produce a scholarly discipline at all?

We think not. In the first place these revelations cannot be news to political scientists. Further they should not even startle other social scientists, who have their own particular counterparts of these difficulties. But there may still be many who are bothered by them, and we think quite reasonably so. Without pretending therefore that all the difficulties of our discipline can be explained away, we think that they can at least be explained. Since this has been so little done, we propose consequently to offer within modest compass a fresh look at politics, its nature and significance.

II

At the outset, then, just what do we mean by the word "politics"? It would seem at first glance that such an apparently simple term should offer us no difficulty. Most of us encounter the term "politics" nearly every day as it is applied in common parlance to the affairs of political parties and politicians, of party conventions and electioneering and of voting and maneuvering for partisan advantage. Certainly these are all familiar political activities and they are a part of politics.

To political scientists, however, politics is something much more extensive than this kind of political activity. But though they agree this much, when they undertake further to discover to just what point and over what institutions and activities the term should extend, they begin to disagree. So it is quite true, unfortunate as it may be, that political scientists have never been able to identify definitively, and to the satisfaction of all, the exact nature of the object of their study.

How, one may well ask, could this difficulty have been left unresolved? It is not a situation that political scientists would prefer of course, nor one they have not sought to remedy. Many of the greatest thinkers of our culture have tried mightily to define politics for us. But the efforts of some 20 centuries have not

won any agreement. We can only say that amidst the host of attempts to reach a conclusion on this problem, we do find that three major perspectives from which to view politics continually stand out, with each one seeming to possess, as one might expect, its own grain of truth.

The first of these comes down to us from the Greeks. This should not be surprising if we recall that our word "politics" was derived from the Greek name for their city-community, the *polis*. To the Greeks the life of man in the city-community was political life as opposed to the inadequate life of family and tribe, or to the downright brutality of life in isolation. In the Greek view, consequently, politics had a much more intense, as well as extensive, significance than it has for us in modern times.

This position was expressed very powerfully by Aristotle, the founder of political science as we use that term today. Politics was to him all that was concerned with the good life in a well-organized self-sufficient community. Political science had to study therefore the nature of the good life—the ideal conditions for its achievement and the practical conditions for its most effective realization in particular circumstances. Aristotle claimed that the statesman exercised "the master art," and went so far as to describe his proper knowledge as "the most sovereign of the sciences."

Aristotle's highly moral conception of political science, devoted to the whole range of community affairs, has had great influence through the succeeding centuries. Yet no single and integrated science of society and social interrelations has resulted from the classical Greek beginning. The Aristotelian approach was based upon the city or comparatively small community as the self-sufficient and complete organization of human life, and upon the complete absorption of the individual by that organizational existence. These conditions no longer exist either as fact or as ideal and the result has been that the full application of Aristotle's ideas, at least as he presented them, is difficult if not impossible. In consequence politics is now usually studied from more limited perspectives, for which their advocates claim greater practicability and a more scientific character. Meanwhile the aspects of Aristotelian politics which have been dropped by political scientists since his day have become the subject matter of other social sciences, such as economics, sociology and psychology.

A second point of view has been offered in more recent times by the many writers who have sought to lend precision to our terms of reference by defining politics as the study of "the state." Those institutions and activities are political therefore which are related to "the state." This attitude would be most helpful if "the state" were a "thing" which we could say was "there" and hence capable of being studied. Unfortunately both of these conditions have to be assumed; neither can be proved in a truly meaningful sense.

Moreover, though purporting to represent a universal, the term "state" has been applied to so many different political, legal and metaphysical concepts in time and space that no one definition among hundreds offered satisfactorily covers it. Though political scientists frequently use the term in their discussions, it has not proved to be one sufficiently specific and fundamental to provide an adequate agreed basis for a scientific discipline. Under these conditions, where it would seem that in a definition we have simply substituted one unknown for another, we may well doubt that we have solved our problem.

A third approach, still more modern, has its roots in the reflections of the Florentine diplomat, Machiavelli, and insists that politics is "power." To writers of this persuasion the study of politics is the study of "power relationships" between men—the forms they take and the institutions they tend to create. Those taking this position would eliminate from political science any moral content: politics, they say, is domination and we must simply be observers and analyzers of the fact.

Considerable force must be admitted for this claim, especially if "power" is broadly enough defined. Conceivably, all human behavior is related in some way to the influencing of someone else. But it is precisely for this reason that the attempt to define politics as the study of "power" does not entirely succeed. The phenomenon of power is discernible throughout the entire area of social activities. Since the network of power relations in a community is by and large coextensive with the community itself, we have great difficulty in distinguishing political from non-political relationships. The attempt to equate politics with the exercise of coercive force is not satisfactory, further, because a relationship between them does not always exist. Most governments obtain compliance with many of their policies without re-

sort to force; on the other hand, coercion may actually be present in contexts which we would never think of as being political. Thus, a definition which offends our common sense is not likely to be correct, and we are probably justified in holding that the power concept does not adequately meet our needs.

What then? It should be obvious by this time that this very complex and age-old problem is not to be resolved simply—nor that, aided by some kind of blinding flash of revelation denied to all other men so far, we can resolve it here. Instead let us suggest a practical expedient. All of us in our normal experiences have come into direct or indirect contact with tax collectors, license clerks, policemen, judges, congressmen, etc. We are aware that the existence of these “offices” has a certain, quite concrete impact upon our lives at many points. We are also aware that these offices do not exist in isolation from each other but are interrelated within a structure of authority and influence which we call “government.” It may further be observed that these officials do not ordinarily act in a way entirely unpredictable but that their behavior as officials is to some extent controlled by a system of rules which we call law. This may not be a very sophisticated approach but at least it avoids a good deal of abstractness and gives us a starting point.

To pull together what we have just developed: government may be said to be the regulation of the activities of the people in a community by an organized body of officials, in accordance with the legal rules of that community. But we should emphasize that government is no more than “the state,” a thing. It is a process, or an activity, in its very nature, and thus cannot be studied as something standing still. It is an interrelationship between people, who are trying to meet the problems that inevitably arise in the course of social life, and institutions, such as systems of law, legislative assemblies or executive agencies, whose functions are closely related to those problems. The better to mark the need of a dynamic approach to the nature of politics, therefore, we may refer to this interaction between people and institutions as “the process of government.”

This process of course is conducted by human beings, whose activity is a manifestation of diverse forms of thinking and feeling. To understand the behavior of man in political life, we must consider it from the various perspectives of art, science and

philosophy. For working purposes, we may say that politics is the art, science and philosophy of the governmental process. This, we admit, is rather an extensive definition; but any definition of politics, we have sought to show, must be so if it is to incorporate the breadth of meaning inherent in the term. Furthermore it should be recognized that a major value of a definition is found in the implications which arise from it. To the development of those in our definition, we now turn.

III

The art of government among men, of ruling and being ruled, must surely be as old as society itself. If art be considered as skill depending upon gift and practice, rather than knowledge of general principles, then one of the greatest accumulations of human artistry lies in the governmental process. Politics certainly was at first, and to a large extent remains, an eminently practical art—"the art of the possible." Thus there are those today who consider politics to be a form of human activity incapable of objective determination. Politics in this sense stresses the value of knowledge gained from common sense and insight, of the importance of creative imagination and vision and of achieving the chosen end successfully; hence politics is practical wisdom.

The exponents of politics as an art insist that its lessons may not be grasped by logic alone but require the application of native talent and intuitive reasoning, and that such lessons must usefully impart not so much information as understanding and appreciation. It is true that the successful statesman or politician of any age, the skilled craftsman of politics, is more often than not self-taught in his art; he may even be spoken of as a "born politician"; his political lore has little to do with books but is acquired as experience. Hence we have the very extensive area of human behavior and relationships we call "practical politics and politicking."

To some degree a share of the political scientist's attention must be devoted to the art of governing as such, not only because this aspect of the subject does not—or will not yet—lend itself to scientific inquiry, but because it seems capable of revelation by a kind of impressionistic treatment akin to artistic perception. It obliges the political scientist, in consequence, to concern him-

self with matters of taste, balance and harmony. Science requires talent, it has been said, but art requires genius; some of the greatest contributions to the elucidation of the essence of politics have truly been made by stroke of genius. In the writings of statesmen, diplomats, administrators and party bosses, for example, are instances of excellent sources of knowledge—albeit entirely unsystematized—mirroring the art of government.

This situation may be more comprehensible if we recall that political science, as it views the works of mankind, stands between the humanistic studies and the physical sciences; it never entirely loses touch with the element of human sympathy provided by the former, even when it moves toward emphasis on the unemotional objectivity of the latter. Some of political science's most useful conclusions have been provided by those with the shrewdest perception of human nature. Thus the study of politics is not likely ever to become solely the process of collecting facts about government; at its most rewarding, it must always have regard for the wisdom of governing.

IV

The ideal has long existed that man could be governed in accordance with scientific knowledge, that is by means superior to chance and guesswork, and without reliance upon intuition and personal skills, which are bound to be largely incommunicable. But from the time of its first expression in the teachings of Socrates, the possibility of realizing this ideal has been seriously questioned. Scientific knowledge is generally defined as organized and verifiable knowledge based upon observation and experience. Within the terms of this definition, the knowledge of the process of government which has been collected since man began to organize his information about human association over 2000 years ago is clearly a science. Further, as the study of the political affairs of man treats an important aspect of social relationships, political science takes its place among the social sciences.

Yet these general definitions do not entirely clarify the position of the science of politics within the full array of the modern sciences and may well be misleading if understood as suggesting that nothing more than differences in subject matter distinguish the scientific disciplines from each other. There are those indeed who cannot accept any divergence from the methods and results

of the physical and mathematical sciences and who assert that the term "science" should not be applied to the study of politics at all. We do not feel that this conclusion must be accepted by students of the political process, however, and that to view politics as a science is not entirely unjustified. What then do we mean in our use of the term "science of politics"?

We mean that scientifically founded knowledge is, or can be made, available to those participating in the process of government so that politics may be more rational and its results more dependable. This implies of course that a "scientific method" of acquiring knowledge is applicable to political affairs—that is to say, that such a method is not restricted in its use to any one class of phenomena. The basic principle of scientific method is that inquiry must be guided by the subject matter as completely as possible and not by the hopes, fears and prejudices of the scientist or by other extraneous factors. This is what is meant when it is said that scientific inquiry is "objective." The essential elements of the scientific method include then the definition of the problem to be solved; the acquisition of relevant data; the construction of hypotheses or tentative theories to explain the data in terms of the problem; and finally the verification or attempted verification of the hypotheses. It is this last procedure which is the most notable characteristic of science: that science is the method of basing beliefs on the best available evidence.

We are further asserting that, through the application of such processes as description, comparison and classification to political phenomena, we may obtain valid and useful conclusions about their nature and significance. That much has already been done along this line is evidenced by the intelligent conclusions of a vast array of existing political literature, based upon careful observation and historical scholarship. It has been pointed out many times that such results will probably lack the exactitude of those achieved by the physical sciences. We certainly do not wish to suggest that political science can possibly be a science that can confidently predict and control. The phenomena of politics hardly lend themselves completely, and perhaps not even significantly, to the establishment of quantitative terms of measurement or the pure isolation of factors which appear unvarying and universal in their relationships. This is a situation however encountered in some degree by any science dealing with people

rather than things—by medicine and psychology as well as economics and politics.

Thus the conduct of government is not, and possibly never can be, based upon an exact science producing mathematically precise results. As a developing science, the study of politics is still concerned with improving its methods of acquiring and evaluating data, and has not yet been able to reach nearly enough of the kinds of generalizations and statements of probability it seeks. One might say that the foundations for a science of politics are still being laid, and clearly great opportunities still remain for its development.

V

When Plato observed that men would never be well governed until "philosophers are kings" or the kings and princes of this world have the spirit and power of philosophy," he stated as clearly as has any man since that politics cannot be understood apart from its philosophical foundations. Men have differed greatly, from his day to the present, on the exact nature of these foundations, but no one has asserted that government should exist for its own sake—simply that there be government. If we are not to be content with an entirely unreflective attitude toward politics, we need to ask further: why men must be governed, how and to what end or purpose. No amount of empirical study, description and classification alone will give us the answers to these questions. It is the task of philosophical speculation to consider such questions as these which get at the very root of political life. Political philosophy then furnishes us with insight through which we can evaluate intelligently the institutions and policies of the concrete political world.

This is not a purely theoretical or abstract matter, of little relevance to the mundane affairs of daily life. It is rather one of immense practical importance, for while we may *live* without an understanding of the "whither" and the "why," we shall not likely *live well*. Only those who have answers to these questions can avoid drifting aimlessly with the changing winds; only those whose answers are sound can escape joining Don Quixote in tilting at windmills. Democracy demands a great deal from its citizens in this respect; far more than a technical knowledge of the institutions of government do they need an understanding

of the objectives being sought through them. Lacking this, they will be unable to fulfill their proper role, which is the intelligent criticism of the activity of their leaders and the functioning of their institutions.

This is not to say of course that the citizen can be provided by political philosophers or anyone else with a complete philosophy, neatly indexed for ready reference. Philosophy is systematic thinking about basic matters, and its conclusions are much too complex to be handled like a table of weights and measures. Philosophers are "lovers of wisdom," not necessarily possessors of it. To say then that governmental power in a healthy society must be founded in philosophy means that critical thought, seeking constantly to interrelate the various aspects of human experience and to discover the possibilities of harmony, must play a large role in political life. Since the essence of politics is the continual clarification of objectives, as well as the discovery of means for their realization, it follows that in the absence of philosophical thought politics degenerates rapidly into purposeless motions and transactions. In short, politics disappears as an activity and the life of society becomes stagnant.

If we, as political observers, rulers or citizens, are to have anything of value to contribute to government, based not upon accident but upon intelligence, it will be because we have succeeded in bringing our social life into perspective and have achieved an understanding of the ends being sought through political action. Then and only then can we see in their full significance the institutions, procedures and policies or courses of action that are found in the area of government. This quite simply is the meaning of "politics as philosophy," and its importance as well as its complexity should be obvious.

VI

We have discussed briefly the roles of art, science and philosophy in the governing of men. We have thus attempted to suggest also that there is really room for each, and that we need not assume that the task is exclusively within the province of only one of these methods of procedure. Indeed their functions should be viewed as complementary, we think, for none of them is so distinct from the other as, for the sake of analysis, our discussion might seem to indicate.

To philosophy clearly goes the job of suggesting the goals we seek through politics and distinguishing, among the many courses of action which in the abstract are possible, those which we *ought* to follow. Yet even here the choice of means cannot be left to free invention; we do not discover the best means of attaining ends simply by contemplation or excogitation. Without reference to the controlled knowledge of the conditions of existence which only science can render, philosophy is always in danger of losing contact with the possible and the real and thus becoming a hindrance rather than a help to effective living. Many philosophers, from Aristotle to Dewey, Whitehead and Russell, have been aware of this and have shown a great and constant interest in the development of science.

The ideal then would seem to be a mutual relationship between these two: for philosophy to give science its direction and science to prevent philosophy from becoming unrealistic, with the result a harmonious and effective political life. But this ideal is to some extent a chimera. Neither the philosophy nor the science of politics has attained a level of development which yet enables either fully to perform its role, and it is even possible that they never will. Furthermore, in the past at least, each has been jealous of the other, tending to exaggerate its own role, so that they have more often been enemies than partners. There remains therefore always scope and need for the art of the politician to bring together science and philosophy, and with his flair for the possible and the meet, to fill in the gaps that exist in our more systematic knowledge.

Political scientists very probably have been remiss in making sufficiently clear what are the peculiar characteristics of politics which produce the disagreements as to methods and objectives of their discipline, and to what degree the apparently contradictory views of their purposes may be reconciled. It is for this reason, we think, that the existence of a field of study, fully meeting all the reasonable requirements of a scholarly discipline, has been obscured. A field of study, after all, is a matter of what questions we choose to ask and in that sense basically a point of view. To render our own more distinct, therefore, we must maintain a perspective which assures that we shall see the field of politics as transcending those particular controversies and uncertainties

which really result from an inadequate and incomplete appreciation of the nature of politics. We have thus sought to show that politics as a field of study must be approached with a method adapted to the nature of its object, the governmental process. As this may be seen to involve art, science and philosophy, so must the study of politics employ art, science and philosophy to understand it. But while the method of our discipline is obliged to be composite, it remains fully coherent and alone permits us to see politics in perspective.

LANGUAGE AND RELATED PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

WILLIAM SCHWAB

INSTRUCTOR, DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS,
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

IN order to identify certain language and other problems of foreign students, particularly during their period of adjustment to the academic program of an American university, Michigan State University recently made a survey. Questionnaires went to 194 MSU students for whom English is a second language; 105 replies were received, representing a response of 54%. A supplementary survey of 1361 MSU faculty members brought replies from 397 persons, representing a return of 30%. The faculty survey elicited information on specific problems, needs and means of assisting more effectively the increasing number of foreign students who enter the university every year. Both Michigan State and other colleges and universities, as hosts each year to an ever greater number of foreign students coming to the United States accept a certain responsibility in making the stay of these students here academically and otherwise profitable. The information gained from the present study has therefore, it is hoped, significance beyond the immediate boundaries of MSU.

The greatest value of the study proved to be the large number of freely expressed observations by both faculty and students in conjunction with certain items for which information was sought on two separate questionnaires. The surveys revealed three areas of common concern to both students and faculty, in addition to four items of interest principally to the staff.

First of all, both student and faculty surveys confirmed the presence of problems in communication between foreign students and native speakers of English in the academic community at MSU. These problems are concerned mainly with the foreign student's comprehension and reproduction of the sounds and structural patterns of American English; adjustment to the speaking habits of various instructors; the mastery of specialized terminologies in essentially non-scientific courses and the prepa-

ration of long reading assignments, which were felt to constitute one of the greatest obstacles, particularly during a foreign student's first term in an American University.

It may seem obvious that a foreign student is likely to encounter certain problems in the language in which he is seeking competence. Definition of these problems, however, is the first step toward more effective communication. It may be useful to know that an Oriental student's difficulties with terminology in home economics or child psychology, for example, may in certain circumstances be ascribed to his introduction to entirely different cultural patterns, to what to him are new ways of understanding children or new ways of understanding nutritive resources. This is not to feel sentimental about a student's difficulties nor to condemn his cultural patterns for being primitive: rather, such awareness should enable an instructor to identify a student's academic problems and to offer him useful advice.

Most faculty members underscored the language difficulties identified by the students themselves, particularly those relating to reading comprehension and to the comprehension of materials presented in lectures. In response to the question of how they met these problems, staff members offered the following replies: by conferring individually with the student; referring him to one of the university's improvement services; suggesting supplementary readings (sometimes in the student's native language); encouraging him to study with sympathetic American students; making lecture notes available to him; making special efforts to speak clearly and listen patiently; anticipating predictable errors. A certain amount of difficulty was acknowledged in solving such problems, as the following comments show: "Due to the amount of material to cover and the technical nature of it, it is almost impossible to handle the foreign students individually"; "I don't have a satisfactory method. Usually the extent of the difficulty doesn't become apparent until the end of the term." Instructors giving what they felt was considerably more than their share of conference time to the problems of foreign students implicitly suggested that such services should be recognized and credited on the faculty service load.

The second principal finding of the survey has to do with the need for a systematic language-training program for those whose

competence in English makes it inadvisable to engage in a full academic program. One third of the foreign students cooperating in the survey felt that they would have benefited from a limited academic program during their first term at the university in conjunction with a special language and orientation program dealing with American institutions and society.

Their greatest difficulty, a number of students pointed out at length, consisted in achieving an adequate mastery of spoken English. This kind of response is not surprising since in his native country the student's preparation in English is frequently limited to reading (translation), with the result that upon his arrival in the United States he finds himself handicapped in the pronunciation and aural comprehension of American English. It was no surprise therefore that students expressed, both implicitly and directly, a need for a phonemic (phonetic) analysis of English rather than for vocabulary building. As Fries has pointed out, the chief problem in learning vocabulary items:

It is, first, the mastery of the sound system—to understand the stream of speech, to hear the distinctive sound features and to approximate their production. It is, second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language.¹

Fries is of course aware that

these things cannot be learned in a vacuum. There must be sufficient vocabulary to operate the structures and represent the sound system in actual use. A person has 'learned' a foreign language when he has thus first, *within a limited vocabulary* mastered the sound system . . . and has, second, made the structural devices . . . matters of automatic habit.

Modern linguistic research, insofar as it bears on second-language learning and teaching, has demonstrated the need for a thorough grounding in the phonemic features, as well as in the structural patterns of a language, as a prerequisite for achieving a practical competence in it.

Besides their emphasis on a linguistically sound method of language study, students voiced a need for the orientation of newcomers from non-English speaking countries to such matters as American social manners and points of etiquette, as well as to items specifically of interest to college students. Stress was

¹ Charles C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, Ann Arbor, 1945, p. 3.

laid on information about the use of library resources, including such matters as the classification of books, their arrangement in the stacks and check-out procedures. A graduate student pointed out that "most foreign countries do not teach or give much care to this particular question."

The third important finding in the survey concerns the extremely marked reaction by foreign students with respect to multiple choice and true-and-false types of examinations or machine-scored tests, which they felt were designed essentially for those whose native language is English. Although English language achievement tests for foreign students on the market are the machine-scored type, the tests to which students made reference are not language tests *per se*, and they are not designed primarily to measure language achievement. Foreign students however, believe that these tests require a linguistic discrimination that most of them do not possess. In the survey they expressed an overwhelming preference for essay and oral examinations.

Faculty responses regarding examinations indicated a general recognition that linguistically the foreign student is handicapped in competing with his American classmates. Most instructors expressed willingness to grant a student additional time and, in certain circumstances, to make special arrangements such as permitting him to use a language dictionary. Faculty members were almost unanimous however in pointing out that they evaluated the work of foreign students in substantially the same manner as they do for native students but that they made certain allowances for language usage and cultural differences.

Four additional problems were brought to light by the faculty questionnaires: first, excessive claims by some foreign students on the instructor's time for help with problems which could better be handled by persons trained in language teaching, and second, the tendency of some students to use language difficulties as a cloak to hide other, more fundamental, weaknesses. The almost 40 staff members who expressed concern about these potential problem areas referred mostly to scientific and laboratory courses. The following comments are representative of these attitudes. "Many (foreign students) bluntly ask for special consideration. Some have asked for copies of my old exams and for special tutoring. My department load does not permit me time to give

a lecture to the class and then individual ones to the various foreign students." "Generally I find no essential difference between their capabilities and those of the general run of our students. I feel however that there has been a tendency on the part of some foreign students to use their supposed language difficulty as an excuse." "They are prone to exaggerate their training prior to coming here and assume by title, rather than content, whether they have had a subject." Indeed, ten staff members felt that the language problems of some foreign students were not nearly as serious as their frequently inadequate background in certain areas, especially those requiring a mechanical orientation.

Apprehension was expressed that the sometimes inadequate preparation of foreign students in English could conceivably lead to a relaxation of academic standards. The consensus was that "if one has a deficiency, whether it be in a language or some other area, we should make him come up to the standard, rather than lower the standard to include him. This applies to domestic and foreign students." In this connection, occasional difficulties in evaluating transcripts of foreign students were cited. Instances were mentioned of students with "apparently good foreign records" who proved to be "very mediocre." It is not surprising that the problem of standards with respect to foreign students was considered a matter of issue, since we are still concerned with trying to establish more defensible standards for students with whom language is not a unique problem.

The third problem disclosed by the faculty survey concerns the fortuitous ways presently employed in classrooms in identifying foreign students at the beginning of a term. Responses to the question, "How do you identify foreign students in your classes at the beginning of a term?" included such items as accent, name, color and/or appearance, dress, notice from department head, introduction by the student's adviser, social features, good manners and "air of bewilderment." Some staff members said that they did not attempt to identify foreign students; others, that they had each student introduce himself to the class or fill out cards containing home addresses.

Two solutions to the haphazard ways now employed to identify foreign students were offered: (1) that foreign students be identified through special class lists or through a special code sign on

the class card, and (2) that the student introduce himself on the first day of classes to the instructor. "If a foreign student can visit the instructor at the beginning of a term, so that the instructor knows his background, object of taking the course, then he can, if he will, make the course more meaningful for the student. At all events, an instructor can be more alert to the problems of a foreign student if he knows one is present in his class."

Finally, the faculty survey indicated a felt need for exchanging information about practices in, as well as suggestions for, handling language and other problems of foreign students. Despite a general willingness by the staff to offer advice to students handicapped by language problems, the feeling prevailed that such matters could be handled more adequately if persons in non-linguistic fields had some knowledge of certain specialized aspects of the communication problem.

The importance of exchanging information about problems peculiar to foreign students gained emphasis from the remarks of those staff members who while declaring their willingness to help foreign students, felt that these students should first seek help. Certain students, on the other hand, expressed embarrassment and hesitancy in seeking special help from their instructor above and beyond that to which they felt native students were entitled. In this connection it is worth noting that in the cultural pattern of Chinese and Japanese students, initiating contact with a professor for the purpose of seeking personal help on academic problems is regarded as forward and impolite.

On the basis of the findings of this study it is possible to draw three major conclusions: (1) Language problems of foreign students are not always confined to linguistic expression alone. Although the causes may appear essentially matters of language skill, certain problems range into other areas as well. (2) As has been shown, the failure of communication can sometimes be attributed to cultural differences. The proper orientation of both foreign students and staff members can minimize, perhaps even successfully eliminate, this aspect of the communication problem. (3) Perhaps the most important finding emerging from the entire survey is that effective language training must avail itself of the resources of linguistic science. A noble heart and good intentions alone cannot teach a foreign student the sounds, inflections and structural patterns of the language to be learned.

IT HAS NOTHING TO DO WITH LOGIC

JOSEPH SEIDLIN

DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL, ALFRED UNIVERSITY

THERE is an old fable about a scorpion and a turtle: a scorpion, being a very poor swimmer, asked a turtle to carry him on his back across a river. "Are you mad?" exclaimed the turtle, "You'll sting me while I'm swimming and I'll drown!" "My dear turtle," laughed the scorpion, "if I were to sting you, you would drown and I would go down with you. Now, where is the logic in that?" "You're right!" cried the turtle, "Hop on!" The scorpion climbed aboard and halfway across the river gave the turtle a mighty sting. As they both sank to the bottom, the turtle resignedly said: "Do you mind if I ask you something? You said there'd be no logic in your stinging me. Why did you do it?" "It has nothing to do with logic," the drowning scorpion sadly replied, "It's just my character."

East and West, South and North, cold wars abound. The Association of American Colleges and the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards have their differences. At the recent meetings of AAC in St. Louis and NCTEPS in Washington, strong expressions of opinion, both private and public, portend a further breach in already somewhat strained relationships. This time it is "Who shall accredit what?"

Probably at no time in the history of schools were they free from criticism or attack. What is disturbing about the late forties and now the fifties of the twentieth century is a sort of fratricidal war among factions of schoolmen who, in the main, subscribe to the tenet that schools are society's principal educative institution.

It is difficult to trace the beginning of the practice of formal preparation of keepers of schools (later to be known as school-teachers). Pestalozzi (1746-1827) is sometimes referred to as the first, albeit one-man, teachers college. Be that as it may, the whirlwind development of teachers colleges, schools of education, departments of education, etc. has taken place in the 20th century. As any historian knows, one of the greatest hurdles in

the path of a developing or growing profession is the opposition of the older practitioners, who *arrived* without formal training, to any "new-fangled" notions of preparation in professional schools for a job for which they themselves acquired some competency "the hard way"—through apprenticeship, or just practice on the job. The older professions—medicine, dentistry, law, some varieties of engineering—have fought the fight and won it, though it is within my memory that some industries refused to have any truck with professionally trained engineers and when I was a youngster on the farm, colleges of agriculture were the laughingstock of even those farmers who didn't know how to care for any other kind of stock.

The disdain for professional schools, in their early stages of development, is due in part to the innocent blunders of the leaders of a professional movement and the brazen claims to quasi-omniscience of their evangelistic disciples. It seems that institutional adolescence is not unlike human adolescence. We find adolescent teachers colleges, schools of education and departments of education, aided and abetted by adolescent social sciences (principally psychology and sociology), intoxicated by a little knowledge—exciting, new, precious knowledge, but nevertheless *little* knowledge mistaken for *big* knowledge. It is during such periods of adolescence in the growth of professions, and even the exact sciences, that theories and postulates are mistaken for and accepted as laws. Such goings on irk the adults (conservatives) and enrage the aged (reactionaries). As in the life of an individual, however, so it would seem in the life of a profession, there is no way of bypassing the period of adolescence.

Even in 1956 no one really knows the best way, if there is a best way, of making teachers. For that matter no one really knows the best way of making physicians or any other professionals. As for teachers being born, not made—that is a dying myth serving no cause other than frightening storks. But in 1956 enough is known about good ways of making teachers to have teachers of teachers admit readily that they don't know it all.

Despite last-ditch stands by die-hards, teaching at lower than the college levels is growing up as a profession. And there are signs that even college teaching is beginning the arduous climb

up the professional mountain. As professions grow up, professional bodies take root, shape and finally greater or lesser control of the profession's rights, privileges and obligations, including such characteristic attributes as certification, licensing, ethics and the approval or accreditation of professional schools. Obviously, only a strong professional organization could even attempt thus to govern a profession. We know too that as an organization acquires power we may expect certain abuses of that power, irrespective of honorable intentions. Until quite recently, and understandably, no such organization existed for teachers.

Teachers, especially for the secondary school, were (and are) being prepared not only at teachers colleges and schools of education but also in colleges of liberal arts. In the latter, as a sort of compromise, an offshoot department without much academic status and with little academic dignity, was more or less put up with. It became known as the Department of Education. Its business was to meet certain "rather silly" certification requirements devised by state teacher-licensing bureaus.

Thus we witness the unfolding of two categories of courses in liberal arts colleges: the "content" courses such as history, mathematics, foreign languages, and the "no-content" courses such as history of education, philosophy of education, theories of learning and practice teaching. The "no-content" courses were taught by members of the Department of Education. These professors of education had a hard time of it. At best they were tolerated, so long as they kept their place in the very rear of the faculty procession. A very special kind of segregation invaded the campus.

How were professors of education taking it? Not too well. They did not choose to remain martyrs to a cause. They had accepted someone's dictum literally: "If you can't beat 'em, join 'em." What made the "content professors" respectable? Certainly not their teaching. That part of a professor's job was incidental to the more noble and glorious preoccupation with the frontiers of knowledge—published research. And so we witness prolific productivity under the banner of scientific determinism. Rats were expendable and graduate students in education were willing. Some knowledge came to light; some theories were reaffirmed; some were exploded with a bang. In all of this turmoil few were aware that something was being neglected, something which was the primary cause of the professional edu-

education movement, to wit: teaching. To this day the professional educators are paying an intellectual penalty for that "darkest moment," that treacherous renunciation of their original credo that teaching is the schoolteacher's chief concern.

The "content" professors—the enemies—were quick to seize upon this anomaly: courses in education were taught no better than the "content" courses. Comedians could not top this one: courses in methods of teaching were all too often taught so poorly as to make a mockery of the title. Not that professors of education ever—on any college campus—were subject to an anti-trust suit for monopolizing poor teaching. That commodity was pretty well distributed among all departments, but the others at least made no pretense that teaching was the teacher's main concern. An irrefutable argument that, and one that hurt and retarded the movement to professionalizing teaching.

The teaching profession is growing up. So are the colleges of liberal arts. Insofar as the two groups are distinct, we find no greater differences between them than between A.M.A. and the Association of American Colleges. The colleges of liberal arts do not interfere with, do not share in, the professional preparation of physicians. The colleges of liberal arts, with the aid of their departments of education, share and share alike (almost) in the professional preparation of teachers. And here's the rub! Currently, very much the rub!

What organization or agency should accredit teacher preparation institutions? For institutions preparing physicians or lawyers or engineers, there is no problem. There must be a way of solving the somewhat more involved problem for institutions preparing teachers. But a problem is rarely solved by preconceived notions, prejudices, closed minds, mob actions. Whatever logical approach there may be seems obscured by the scorpion's resignation: "It has nothing to do with logic; it's just my character."

It may be a little painful to the varieties of egos involved even to attempt to analyze the momentarily irreconcilable differences between the two parties involved in this particular cold war. Members of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards believe that teaching is a profession and therefore that teachers should be prepared in professional schools. Physicians are prepared in schools of medicine, lawyers in schools of law, engineers in schools of engineering and so on. Logically

it follows that teachers should be prepared in schools of "education." The colleges of liberal arts would become preprofessional to teaching in the same sense as they are now preprofessional to medicine, law, engineering, etc.

When, and if, that comes to pass, the present dynamite-laden controversy as to what group should accredit what institutions will wither away. Obviously, much needs to be accomplished by both groups, separately and jointly, to bring about that kind of cooperative relationship between colleges of liberal arts and professional schools of education. The former must divest themselves of a veritable armor of prejudice and antagonism against the inevitable growing up of the teaching profession; the latter must put their own house—a mansion of too many winding, only partly lit, corridors; of some unfurnished rooms, with some overstuffed furniture—in order.

Stripped of all metaphor, what is the obligation of both groups toward easing the existing tensions? The colleges of liberal arts must define or redefine "liberal education"; NCTEPS must define "professional education." NCTEPS must clarify its position on what one needs to know to be able to teach; the colleges of liberal arts must come to the realization—long overdue—that "to know" is not the equivalent of "to be able to teach." Or, to express it differently, we must come to a general agreement that: (1) one who does not know his subject cannot teach it; (2) one may know his subject and yet be unable to teach it.

Preparation for teaching is as professional as preparation for medicine, law or engineering. Eventually schools of education may require a bachelor's degree (or three years of liberal arts with some appropriate preprofessional emphases) for admission. When that time comes (and, as we all know, it did not come full-blown in medicine) the question as to what organizations should be the accrediting agencies will have lost its controversial aspect. Even before then, it may be opportune to re-evaluate both the process and the agencies of accreditation. To decide on the appropriate agencies is a matter of agreement; to decide on the process is a matter for study. But so long as colleges of liberal arts share in the professional preparation of teachers, the problem of accreditation should be, as it can be, solved by men of good will if they give logic a chance. Less prejudice and more logic is not the scorpion's way—but then *we* are college teachers and administrators.

THE AMERICAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY AND TRAINING IN CHEMISTRY

EDWARD L. HAENISCH, CHAIRMAN, DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY,
WABASH COLLEGE

EDWIN O. WIIG, CHAIRMAN, DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY,
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER

FOR many years almost all colleges and universities have offered instruction in chemistry as a part of their curriculum in natural sciences. The nature of the course offerings depends on the objectives of the institution and the department of chemistry. These objectives vary with the institution and in a given department the emphasis may have shifted with time.

It is generally agreed that the principal objectives in the teaching of courses in chemistry may be summarized as follows: (1) to provide the educational and cultural values associated with sciences in general that are desirable for a liberal education; (2) to provide the basic training in chemistry essential to students in professional fields, such as biology, geology, physics, engineering, nursing and home economics; (3) to afford somewhat more than basic training in chemistry to pre-dental and pre-medical students, to some science majors and to those intending to become technicians in medical laboratories; (4) to provide a "major" or "concentration" in chemistry as part of a liberal arts program; (5) to offer sufficient specialized training in chemistry beyond the generally recognized basic courses that will enable a graduate with a bachelor's degree to enter directly into a career as a professional chemist; (6) to prepare students for graduate training in chemistry; and (7) to provide graduate training leading to the master's and doctor's degree in chemistry.

For many institutions, particularly the liberal arts colleges devoted primarily to undergraduate training, the line of demarcation between objectives (4), (5) and (6) is not always clear. The most frequent liberal arts major in chemistry embraces the four fundamental year-courses in general, analytical, organic and physical chemistry. Some institutions may offer one or more additional advanced courses. Other institutions may offer

courses of a vocational nature leading to preparation for specific industrial application, such as ceramics or petroleum, with the elimination of liberal arts subjects and other work in fundamental science. With the rapid development of the physical sciences a curriculum designed to train a student as a professional chemist when he is graduated with a bachelor's degree requires a certain amount of advanced work beyond the basic four year-courses.

The growing professional character of the natural sciences, particularly physics and chemistry, and the increasing complexity and the interdependence of the subject matters involved make it desirable to develop standards of professional training. Such standards should differentiate between basic courses necessary for the development of professional competence and semi-professional or vocational courses designed for special interest groups. The standards should retain training in the languages, English composition and literature, the humanities and the social sciences. The time required for these fields of study should not however prevent a student from attaining proficiency in chemistry and the related sciences and mathematics. He must have a basic understanding of the world in which he lives, but he must also comprehend the growing complexity of chemistry and the increasingly large number of physical facilities which he will encounter in the pursuit of his profession as a chemist.

The development of professional status for natural and physical scientists in the United States has been most marked in the case of chemistry. The importance of chemistry in industry, agriculture, health and everything that contributes to the highest standards of living ever known, is today generally accepted as self-evident. The recognition of the esteem in which the science of chemistry is held is evidenced by the establishment of schools of chemistry, in place of departments of chemistry, in some of our leading universities. These schools of chemistry are analogous in a broad sense to the German Institutes of Chemistry, except that in the latter specialization has been carried to the point of having institutes for organic chemistry, physical chemistry, etc. Many chemistry departments, even though designated as such by tradition or organizational structure, are the equivalent of professional schools in educational stature. Hence,

training leading to professional competence in chemistry may be offered by academic groups which range in organization from departments in the strictest sense to individual schools in the broad sense. The listing of institutions that are approved as offering professional training in chemistry thus implies more than departmental accrediting as that term is normally used. It is the tremendous growth in chemistry as a science and the recognition of chemistry as a profession that sets chemistry apart from most of the other academic departments.

In spite of these reasons, the question sometimes arises as to why an individual department of a college or university should seek approval by the American Chemical Society. Perhaps a brief historical summary will explain how and why the American Chemical Society started the task of preparing a list of schools approved for professional training in chemistry.

In 1936 the Society appointed a committee of outstanding educators in chemistry to survey chemical education in the United States. Ever since then complete control of the Committee on Professional Training, as the group is now called, has remained in the hands of college and university chemistry professors.

In December of 1937 the Committee addressed a letter to college presidents which said in part:

During the years 1931 to 1934, the American Chemical Society was faced with the problem of unemployed chemists. A careful investigation was made by a competent committee. During this study the striking fact, of utmost importance to the chemical professions, was uncovered that a large proportion of those in the list of unemployed did not qualify in training or experience to hold chemical positions.

The American Chemical Society is striving to improve the profession of chemistry. It is fundamental to such a program that the training and experience necessary for a man who is to be called a chemist be recognized and at least in broad terms be specified. A committee of the American Chemical Society has now been appointed whose duty it is to accomplish this objective.

A questionnaire was mailed with this letter.

To determine the desirable minimum for those students who expect to stop their education at the bachelor's level and go directly into the profession of chemistry the Committee summarized the information from the 450 questionnaires which were re-

turned. The Committee selected a point just above the median of the tabulated data for its standards. The data included not only chemistry courses, but also the essential supporting courses in mathematics, physics, German, English, the humanities and social sciences. Instructional and library facilities, departmental administration, staff training and teaching loads were studied. The teaching load is an important factor in determining that a staff is not so over-burdened that it has little or no time to keep up with the recent advances in chemistry and perhaps to do some research. This summary came to be referred to as "Minimum Standards." The early editions of the "Minimum Standards" contained statements with reference both to graduate and undergraduate professional training in chemistry. More will be said later about present "Minimum Standards" as they refer to the undergraduate program.

Following the formulation of the "Minimum Standards" the Committee entered upon a visitation program and prepared a list of approved schools. In actual fact, the list of schools approved by the American Chemical Society Committee on Professional Training was set up to afford a ready means of determining the grade of membership in the Society available to a student who has graduated with a major in chemistry. Graduates of schools on the approved list are eligible to full membership in the Society after two years of professional experience whereas five years of experience are required of graduates of other institutions. Currently, a student who obtains a Ph.D. degree at an institution approved for its instruction in undergraduate chemistry becomes eligible for full membership in the Society regardless of whether he had his undergraduate training at an approved or non-approved institution.

This approved list has to a certain degree become associated with accreditation in the public mind and among college and university administrators even though that was not the intent. The Committee on Professional Training has indeed steadfastly refused to regard itself as an accrediting agency.

The uses to which an approved list of educational institutions may be put is unfortunately something that those responsible for the list cannot control. There have been, and no doubt will continue to be, abuses in usage, though happily they now appear

to be infrequent. It has long been recognized in universities and chemical industry that certain small colleges not on the approved list turn out highly qualified graduates. Perhaps these graduates cannot begin work with as great professional skill as an American Chemical Society certified student but because of the excellence of their undergraduate background such graduates may progress rapidly. The Committee on Professional Training on several occasions has pointed out to those who have misused the list that they are hurting themselves by not considering graduates from schools that do not appear on the approved list.

At the time the American Chemical Society decided to establish its list of approved schools, it took a firm stand that such a list should carry no implication of salary differential in the hiring of graduates from schools appearing or not appearing on the list. Any such use to which the list may have been put is strongly condemned. Regardless of the field of specialization and whether or not some sort of an approved list exists, there may always be differences in opportunities for employment of graduates of a "big name" institution as contrasted with a small college. In our system of free enterprise financial reward should be commensurate with recognized ability and potential value to the organization in addition to previous training. Of two candidates of roughly equal ability and personality the one with professional background is quite likely to command a higher salary than one with less professional training. In conversations with personnel representatives of leading industrial organizations, it has been found that they do not use the American Chemical Society list to establish salary differentials but judge each prospective employee on his merits.

Many institutions of higher learning, because of financial limitations or other reasons, cannot and should not offer professional training in medicine, nursing, law, engineering, journalism, business administration, physical education, etc. Such colleges and universities may however give preprofessional training in these fields. This provides a student with the broad base from which he may go on to postgraduate professional training. Similarly, colleges and universities may not desire or may not have the financial resources to give training at the professional level in physics, chemistry, biology and sciences in general. For in-

stance, many small colleges do not offer a major in physics but limit themselves to the required courses for premedical students. Chemistry majors are more numerous because of the higher proportion of courses in chemistry required in premedical and other curricula.

It should be emphasized that the fact that a department is approved does not imply that all its graduates must be or are certified as meeting the minimum requirements. Approval of a department of chemistry by the Committee means that an institution *offers* work of adequate quality and of sufficient quantity to enable a student, if he so elects, to meet the minimum requirements. Only those who do meet them are certified to the American Chemical Society by the head of the department as eligible for membership in the Society within the minimum time. In many schools on the approved list it is possible to "major" in chemistry without fulfilling these requirements. A student whose goal is graduate work in chemistry may elect more liberal arts and fewer professional courses. These students with less than the desirable minimum of training for a professional chemist at the bachelor's level are generally recognized however as potentially excellent prospects for successful work in industry, in medical school or in graduate study.

Many institutions, particularly small liberal arts colleges, offer training in chemistry which is excellent in quality but insufficient in quantity to qualify a graduate as a professional chemist. Naturally, such institutions would not be included in a list of colleges and universities whose departments of chemistry have been approved as meeting the minimum standards for professional training at the bachelor's level. Friends and alumni of a college whose name does not appear on the approved list need to be apprised of the differences in objectives, with respect to training in chemistry, between the institution concerned and those on the approved list. This would help to eliminate any suggestion of stigma that might be attached to the absence of the name of a college from the list of approved departments.

Catalogs of such small liberal arts colleges might well include carefully worded statements which emphasize that they do not propose to offer professional training in chemistry at the bachelor's level. These statements should also bring out the advan-

tages of a strong liberal arts curriculum in preparation for graduate work. The opportunities for graduate study at recognized schools, especially the aid available in the form of scholarships, fellowships and graduate assistantships for students of ability, should be stressed.

It has frequently been suggested that the Committee on Professional Training should publish a "second list" of schools approved for their preprofessional training. This possibility has been carefully studied and is considered to be unfeasible. In its current report* the committee makes the following statement:

The Committee on Professional Training recognizes that there are many institutions having adequate instruction in chemistry which are not on the Society's list of approved schools. These institutions may offer excellent training in chemistry within their stated educational objectives or to the extent permitted by their particular circumstances without professing to prepare students for professional work in chemistry upon their graduation with the bachelor's degree. Nevertheless they send many of these students to graduate schools to complete their professional training and these students often make excellent records in their graduate work. The Committee feels strongly that this type of institution is very valuable in the American system of education. Graduate schools and employers of chemists will continue to recognize that high quality students, soundly trained in the elementary principles of chemistry, graduate from colleges not on the approved list of the Society.

The following statistics support the contention that graduates of non-approved institutions are indeed admitted by graduate schools and are successful in obtaining the Ph.D. in chemistry.

Year	Schools reporting	Total no. of Ph.D.'s in chemistry	No. of Ph.D.'s with undergraduate training at school not on ACS List
1950	78	967	265
1951	84	1,013	293
1952	84	984	264
1953	87	946	271
1954	88	993	276
1955	89	988	257

* Since the beginning of its study the Committee has published progress reports in *Chemical and Engineering News*. The current report, No. 28, appears in the edition of March 28, 1955.

The minimum standards for professional training in chemistry have been revised continuously as the Committee has kept in close contact with the developments in chemical education by its constant study of the reports of its visitation program and of the annual reports from the approved schools. The most recent edition of "Minimum Standards Used as Criteria in Evaluating Undergraduate Professional Training in Chemistry" appeared in 1954 and is available on request to the Secretary, Committee on Professional Training, 343 State Street, Rochester 4, New York.

The minimum requirements are actually meant to be a broad framework within which there may be variations. Each individual item is not an absolute requirement as some mistakenly believe. The point of view of the Committee is that the over-all picture should be considered and not each individual detail. Every effort is exerted to allow flexibility. There is a strong desire on the part of the Committee to encourage experimentation in chemical education and not to emphasize harmonious conformity. What may be deficiencies or deviations from the generally accepted or recommended procedure in one part of the program may be taken care of in other parts of the curriculum. The graduate of an approved program should have had at least the equivalent of the minimum training expected of a professional chemist regardless of the variation in procedure. The Committee has encouraged such experiments as building the freshman year course around organic chemistry or postponing part of the training in analytical chemistry until the senior year.

The "Minimum Standards" have given college administrators a yardstick by which to evaluate their offerings and to improve their departments through addition of qualified staff members, provision for more adequate facilities for instruction and encouragement of staff members in research. The latter is an important factor in helping to keep teachers abreast of recent developments and preventing stagnation and a feeling of complacency in routine performance of duties. A Visiting Associate of the Committee has summarized this position in the following quotation from one of his reports:

Research *per se* is not the objective of the Committee on Professional Training, but research is a normal activity of

teachers of chemistry and for some of them it is an important part of their professional life. A policy which discourages research is not sound. It would act to dampen the professional interests of certain teachers; it would act also to lessen the opportunities to stimulate an interest in chemistry on the part of certain students. This point of view does not mean that all chemistry teachers should engage in research. To argue that would be as unsound as to argue that no teacher should be allowed to pursue his research interests.

Members of the chemical profession, particularly those engaged in academic pursuits, are keenly aware of the importance of liberal arts studies in the training of a well-rounded professional chemist. The "Minimum Standards" recommend that a *minimum* of one half of the student's residence time for one year be devoted to the study of humanities, which is interpreted as courses in fields other than the natural sciences and mathematics, and the required English and foreign language. This is approximately the equivalent of three one-year courses in the average chemistry curriculum. Many leaders in chemical education feel that this requirement is too low. However, a majority of students who qualify as professional chemists under the "Minimum Standards" undoubtedly have more than this minimum, owing to the influence and requirements of the typical arts college. The "Minimum Standards" are sufficiently flexible so that a student who wishes to be certified may reduce to the minimum the number of advanced courses that he takes in chemistry and thus have time to devote approximately one third of his total college work to humanities. The Committee is heartily in favor of the broadest possible training for the professional chemist and scientist in general, consistent with the accepted minimum requirements for professional stature.

From the inception of the American Chemical Society program of appraisal of departments of chemistry until recently the Committee on Professional Training has dealt directly with college and university administrators. The Committee has never solicited an invitation to study an institution; such invitations have always been extended by the administrative head of the school, generally at the suggestion of the chairman of the department of chemistry.

Since 1953 the American Chemical Society has been cooperating actively with the National Commission on Accrediting and the regional accrediting associations in carrying out appraisals of institutions. The regional associations dealing with accreditation at the college level in their respective geographical areas are: Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Western College Association. In general these associations accredit on an over-all institution-wide basis. When a college or university is under consideration by a regional association, departments of chemistry may be involved in either of two types of visitation.

If the institution already appears on the American Chemical Society list of approved schools or it desires such approval, a type of visit is arranged for which the Committee names one of its regular Visiting Associates to act as a member of the Association's visiting team. This Visiting Associate in chemistry spends at least one day studying the department of chemistry for the Committee. He may devote the remainder of the time of the team visit to a study of other science departments. A report on the department of chemistry is submitted to the American Chemical Society committee and a similar report on chemistry and on the other science departments to the team chairman for inclusion in the general report to the Association. All the expenses of the Visiting Associate are paid by the American Chemical Society except the living expenses during the extra days devoted to the evaluation of other departments. The Committee reaches its own decision with respect to approval or non-approval of the department of chemistry for professional training provided the Association has taken favorable action.

If the institution does not give professional training in chemistry at the college level or does not desire American Chemical Society approval, a second type of visit is planned. At the request of the Association the Committee on Professional Training may name a chemist to serve as a member of the visiting team for the purpose of evaluating sciences in general. In this case the visitor's expenses are met entirely by the Association. No report

is made to the Committee since it serves only in an advisory capacity. The operating procedures for cooperation with the regional associations vary. The procedures described above are in general those followed by the associations that are most actively engaged in visitation programs.

Where there are long intervals between reevaluation visits by a regional association, the Committee on Professional Training may request an invitation to revisit the chemistry department of an already approved institution. Such visits are made with the full knowledge of the proper association. Frequently the association sends a "generalist" along as an observer.

If a college or university is giving or proposes to give training in chemistry at the professional level, the Committee on Professional Training is ready and willing to confer with the chairman and/or dean and to suggest any steps that may be necessary to enable the department to meet the minimum requirements. When it is felt that a department of chemistry is qualified for approval, the president of the institution may communicate directly with the secretary of the Committee on Professional Training or with the appropriate regional association to extend an invitation to evaluate the department. Prior to the visit the departmental chairman submits a report of the state of the department and its curriculum to the secretary of the Committee. This report is of the fill-in type and has been streamlined through 15 years of experience. For any department, no matter how well qualified, the mere act of self-scrutiny and of comparison with the minimum standards in preparation for an evaluation cannot help but be of some benefit.

In selecting a Visiting Associate the Committee chooses a well-known professor of chemistry from a different geographic locality, who has received his training elsewhere than at the institution under consideration and who has no personal ties at the institution. As background for the visit the Associate is furnished with the questionnaire and instructions from the Committee as to particular points to be studied. An effort is made to arrange the visit at a time when the Associate may meet with the president or other administrative officers of the institution as well as with members of the chemistry department. The Visiting Associate functions only in an objective way, making no

recommendations to the school under consideration; his sole responsibility is that of a fact-finder for the Committee. During his visit the Associate adds detailed comment to the questionnaire. Such surveys bring to light strong and weak points of a given department and are of great assistance to the Committee.

Such a visit also helps to supplement the data with the immeasurable factors of spirit and philosophy of a staff. It gives opportunity for a broadening of understanding, widening of acquaintance, new approaches to professional training, sharing of experience, discussion of problems confronting the small as well as the large school, whether privately endowed or publicly supported. The very fact that the Visiting Associate comes from a different locality with a different educational background helps in this broadening process.

At the close of the visit the Associate reports in detailed fashion to the Committee and to the regional association if one is involved. The Committee then carefully studies the report and generally invites the departmental chairman (and occasionally the Visiting Associate) to confer with it before action is taken. This conference provides opportunity for clarification of items in doubt and an exchange of points of view. When a final decision is reached the institution is informed of the result. Included may be statements concerning points of strength and weakness of the department. In some cases action is deferred, either because the Committee wishes to obtain further information or because of pending changes which may alter conditions. Any institution for which an unfavorable action was taken may, after an interval of two years, request a reappraisal.

Although the primary objective in developing a group of minimum standards for appraisal of departments of chemistry was to enable the American Chemical Society to determine the grade of membership in the Society, of equal importance was a strong desire on the part of leading educators in chemistry to improve chemical education in the United States. In its national charter, the only charter granted by the Congress of the United States to a scientific society, the American Chemical Society is charged with the duty of seeking to improve chemical training. Departments of chemistry have generally recognized the desirability of some sort of minimum standards. Through supplying

information and through consultation with the Committee, colleges and universities and their representatives have consciously or unconsciously helped to shape the form of these minima for professional competence.

Once set up, these standards have afforded departments the opportunity of comparing themselves with others. Some years ago the list of approved institutions contained a little over 100 names. Today 233 departments are approved as offering training qualifying their graduates as professional chemists at the bachelor's level. The increase in the number of approved schools reflects the natural desire of institutions to improve their offerings. This improvement has often come about as a result of conferences with and advice from the Committee. It required determined effort and patience on the part of some schools to meet the minimum standards suggested. The great majority of those familiar with the operation of the program of the American Chemical Society agree that it has been of great help. This upgrading of instruction in chemistry is an important contribution by the colleges and universities at a time when scientists are so essential to our national safety and prosperity and are in short supply.

Though the American Chemical Society mandate to its Committee on Professional Training at its inception included a study of graduate programs in chemistry, consideration of training at the undergraduate level occupied the complete attention of the Committee during the first 10 years or so. About 1945 the Committee began actively to consider graduate work. It was decided to limit the program to the Ph.D. degree in chemistry because of the extremely varied requirements for the master's degree. The study took the following form. Chairmen of departments offering training at the doctorate level, of which there are almost 100 in the United States, were invited individually to a conference with the Committee.

Previous to the conference the chairman was asked to prepare a summary of the program at his institution. To date conferences have been held with the chairmen of 71 departments and it is planned to talk with all the remainder who are interested. Departments thus far studied represent a cross section of all types.

Following the conference many institutions officially invited the Committee to send Visiting Associates to inspect the department. Such visits have been made to 26 departments, with additional visits planned. Generally two visitors, professors of chemistry chosen by the Committee on the basis of outstanding records in research and in training graduate students, have devoted two days to an institution. Most departments found this review of their graduate programs by themselves and by highly competent outsiders extremely valuable. In addition the faculty was afforded opportunity for exchange of information and of points of view with the Visiting Associates. The chairman of the department visited was usually invited to a second conference with the Committee to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the graduate program as revealed by the study.

As has always been true of the undergraduate visitation program, the cost of the visitation at the graduate level has been borne completely by the American Chemical Society.

From the beginning the Committee took the point of view that only through a study of graduate work would it be possible to determine whether it would be feasible and desirable to compile a list of institutions with departments approved for training leading to the doctorate in chemistry. The Committee realized that it would be undesirable to recommend any set procedure for all schools to follow if creativeness and originality are to be encouraged. As the study progressed it became more and more evident that successful graduate programs varied so greatly that it would be exceedingly difficult to establish a general yardstick for comparison. After studying the information gathered during the past eight years, the Committee has definitely decided that it will not attempt to compile a list of institutions approved for graduate work, and it has publicly gone on record to that effect. The Committee is at present reviewing and digesting the large amount of data collected in its study of training at the doctorate level and intends shortly to present a summary of its findings.

The generally acknowledged success that the American Chemical Society has had in its efforts to help raise the standards of training in chemistry in the United States would have been impossible without the unselfish, devoted support and cooperation of many individuals serving without monetary remuneration.

The more than 200 Visiting Associates who have visited departments to appraise training in chemistry at the undergraduate level have taken time from their own busy teaching and research schedules to study and evaluate the offerings of their colleagues in other institutions. Their one purpose has been to insure for young people choosing this field adequate facilities for professional training. The 49 Visiting Associates at the graduate level who have either visited or indicated their willingness to visit are gladly giving generously of their time and energy in an effort to improve graduate training. Lack of space compels us to forego the pleasure it would give to list the names of all those involved. The list would read like a *Who's Who* in chemical education.

The members of the early committees dealing with professional training in chemistry laid the firm foundations on which later committees have built. These included Dr. Roger Adams, Professor of Chemistry and Chairman of the Department of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, University of Illinois; Dr. Robert E. Swain, Professor of Chemistry, Chairman of the Department of Chemistry and Acting President, Stanford University; Dr. S. C. Lind, Professor of Chemistry and Dean of the School of Chemistry, University of Minnesota; Dr. W. A. Noyes, Jr., Professor of Chemistry and Dean of the Graduate School, University of Rochester; Dr. H. B. Weiser, Professor of Chemistry, Chairman of the Department of Chemistry and Dean of the Graduate School, Rice Institute; Dr. W. G. Young, Professor of Chemistry and Dean of the Division of Physical Sciences, University of California at Los Angeles; Mr. Erle M. Billings, Eastman Kodak Company; Dr. Arthur W. Hixson, Professor of Chemical Engineering and Executive Officer of the Department of Chemical Engineering, Columbia University; and Mr. F. W. Willard, President, Nassau Smelting and Refining Company.

Following these pioneers Dr. W. C. Johnson, Professor of Chemistry and Dean of the Division of Physical Sciences, University of Chicago, Dr. B. Riegel, at that time Professor of Chemistry, Northwestern University and Dr. R. A. Beebe, Professor of Chemistry and Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, Amherst College served long and faithfully and by their wise counsel helped guide the Committee through the hectic period when graduate work was being studied. The present committee

members, carrying on in the best traditions of its predecessors in emphasizing quality in the teaching of chemistry, are Dr. W. G. Young, who has continued on the Committee, serving as its chairman for the past seven years; Dr. A. C. Cope, Professor of Chemistry and Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Dr. L. Hammett, Professor of Chemistry and Executive Officer of the Department of Chemistry, Columbia University; Dr. W. S. Johnson, Professor of Chemistry, University of Wisconsin and the authors.

Finally, the Committee would not have been able to function so smoothly and efficiently without its hard-working, non-voting members: Mr. Erle M. Billings, executive secretary 1937-1949 and Mr. John M. Howard, Eastman Kodak Company, executive secretary 1950 to date, as well as their secretaries Mrs. B. H. Goodrich and Mrs. M. Bragg.

AMONG THE COLLEGES

BARRY COLLEGE recently dedicated a new \$1,200,000 fine arts building and auditorium whose facilities include radio and television studios.

BRANDEIS UNIVERSITY has received a grant of \$1,000,000 from the Dorothy and Lewis S. Rosenstiel Foundation to establish a new science research center for basic research in biochemistry.

CALDWELL COLLEGE has received \$200,000 from the late Eleanor Peregrine of Montclair, New Jersey, a long-time friend of the college.

CREIGHTON UNIVERSITY has announced plans to launch a \$14,232,000 building and expansion program. To help underwrite the initial \$3,193,000 phase of the ten-year project, a campaign for \$1,750,000 is being planned for 1956. Included in the plans is the construction of a \$659,000 men's dormitory, a \$474,000 student center, a \$1,550,000 plant for the Creighton University High School and a \$360,000 fund for faculty development, scholarships and university services.

FAIRLEIGH DICKINSON COLLEGE has recently dedicated Williams Hall, a new classroom building on the Teaneck, N. J. campus of the college. The \$350,000 building is named for Edward T. T. Williams, chairman of the Board of Trustees of the college. About 90 per cent of the costs of construction were contributed by industries and individuals.

GEORGETOWN UNIVERSITY has announced the establishment of 42 four-year scholarships. Each of the 42 Jesuit preparatory and high schools in the United States will receive one of the scholarships, which provide full tuition and are valued at \$2,600.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE has announced that the million-dollar goal of its three-year building program has been exceeded by \$14,000. Already completed is a new dormitory, Morris Leeds Hall. The new field house will be completed this spring.

LIVINGSTONE COLLEGE raised a total of \$81,493 on Founder's Day, 10 February.

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY (Illinois) received a total of \$1,275,000 in cash gifts during 1955.

MARQUETTE UNIVERSITY has raised more than \$3,000,000 toward a goal of \$5,500,000 in its 75th anniversary drive for the construction of a dental school addition, a science hall and a communications building.

MOUNT ST. SCHOLASTICA COLLEGE has announced plans for a \$2,000,000 building program which will include a four-story residence hall for 200 students and a two-story student activity building.

MOUNT UNION COLLEGE has announced the receipt of a \$25,000 contribution from the Babcock & Wilcox Company to the new science building, which will cost approximately \$500,000. Construction on the building is due to begin this summer.

OHIO NORTHERN UNIVERSITY has been presented by two anonymous donors with over \$500,000 in securities to be placed in the university's general endowment. The university has also received a bequest of \$16,000 from the estate of the late Mr. and Mrs. Ralph W. Briggs of Louisville, Kentucky.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY has received \$116,740 under the terms of a deed of trust drawn by the late Dr. James Gilbert White, Vice President of the Board of Trustees from 1914 to 1937. The gift is one of the largest ever received by the university.

ST. LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY has received \$100,000 from Edward J. Noble, Chairman of the Finance Committee of American Broadcasting-Paramount Theatres, Inc., toward the university's \$1,000,000 centennial campaign to build the Owen D. Young Library, and \$500,000 from the John Noble Foundation for the construction of a student activity center or for any other purpose on which the university trustees and the foundation may agree.

ST. PETER'S COLLEGE broke ground on 22 February for Dinneen Hall, a new campus building which will include classrooms, an auditorium, dining halls and a modern language laboratory.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY is offering a two-week workshop in fund raising at its Chautauqua Center, Chautauqua, New York from 23 July through 3 August. The workshop is designed especially for those who are engaged in college and university fund raising or for college presidents and administrative officers responsible for the employment and supervision of fund-raising personnel. Inquiries should be addressed to The Coordinator, Chautauqua Center of Syracuse University, Syracuse 10, New York.

TRINITY COLLEGE (Connecticut) has announced a campaign to raise \$1,000,000 for the specific purpose of raising faculty salaries.

UNIVERSITY OF CHATTANOOGA in October 1955 announced plans for a \$5,000,000 development program, including \$2,000,000 for buildings and \$3,000,000 for endowment. By early March 1956 \$2,507,000 including a \$750,000 gift from the Benwood Foundation of Chattanooga, had been subscribed, thus passing the halfway mark in just over four months.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN will again hold a Workshop for College Professors from 25 June to 13 July 1956 and an Institute on College Administration, 16-20 July, under the direction of Dr. Algo D. Henderson. Features of the workshop will include presentations by a special staff, discussions and projects related to individual members' needs. The institute will consider such problems as the administration of curriculum, personnel and finance. Special attention will be paid to institutional self-studies and to the human relations factor in personnel administration. Additional information may be obtained by writing to Dr. Henderson at 2442 U. E. S., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

UNIVERSITY OF NOTRE DAME received a total of \$2,286,000 in gifts and grants in 1955.

UNIVERSITY OF OMAHA has received a trust fund amounting to \$450,000 from Frederick W. Kayser and \$100,000 bequeathed by the late Glenn L. Martin.

NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Cardinal Stritch College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Sister Mary Aquin.

Saint Vincent College, Latrobe, Pennsylvania. Quentin Schaut.

Shurtleff College, Alton, Illinois. Roland F. Turnbull.

United States Military Academy, West Point, New York. Garrison H. Davidson.

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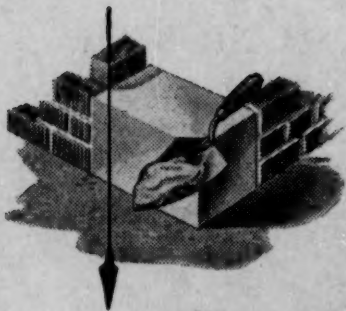
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